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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 5, 1904.

The Week.

President Roosevelt could do no other than stand by his appointment of Dr. Crum as Collector at Charleston. Until the Senate decides otherwise, he is bound to suppose that a man against whom no other charge was ever brought, will not be kept out of office simply because his skin is not of the desirable shade. Hence the prompt recess appointment of Dr. Crum is simply the President's way of asking again whether the door of opportunity is or is not open in this country to negroes of education and good character. The Senate must answer. At the same time, Mr. Roosevelt cannot complain too bitterly because the Senate would not act. It was a case of the fetish, "Senatorial courtesy." Senator Tillman was absent, so how could an appointment in his State possibly be considered? As the President himself is, by his method of appointing to office, one of the greatest upholders of Senatorial courtesy, he is defenceless when its edge is turned against himself in this way.

The statements made in the Senate and House on Thursday regarding the appropriations of the late session of Congress are ominous. It is all very well for the Republicans to claim that the authorized expenditures for next year will be only $698,272,786, against $727,474,206 estimated by Secretary Shaw, and that, instead of the deficit of $23,002,146 predicted by the latter, there will be a surplus of $6,199,274. But this is very far from revealing the true situation. Senator Allison had to admit that the appropriations of the last session were $28,000,000 above those for the present fiscal year, as estimated. There is also an increase of $8,832,000 in the permanent annual appropriations. To the $698,272,786 of authorized appropriations must be added $26,801,843 to pay deficits for prior fiscal years, and $56,500,000 for the sinking fund, making $781,574,629 in all. Secretary Shaw estimated next year's revenue at about $704,000,000, which is $77,000,000 less than the authorized and the permanent appropriations. It is hoped, of course, that the revenue will run ahead of the estimates and make good part of this discrepancy; and it is also expected that considerable money granted for the coming year will not actually be expended until a later period. But the present receipts of the Treasury certainly cast a damper on the hope of excess in revenues.

Where are we going to stop? The British people, who have been pursuing exactly the same policy as ourselves, have become seriously alarmed over their expenditures; our complacency is still undisturbed. But it is worth noting that our extravagance is of the same order as theirs. The army and navy are swamping them, and the army and navy are devouring our substance at an alarming rate. Next year we propose to spend $8,000,000 more on the former than this year, and $16,000,000 more on the latter. Senator Aldrich may cry Peace, peace! but there is no peace—that is, no peace-footing for our military establishment. He has been hoping for it ever since the Spanish war, but sees it recede farther into the distance every year. During the last fiscal year Great Britain spent $144,500,000 on her army. Secretary Shaw's estimate for 1905 was $125,600,000. Great Britain devoted to her navy $184,500,000, and the Treasury's estimate for us was $103,600,000. Considering the size of the British Empire, and the fact that its navy is intended to be equal to any two fleets of other nations, our pace is out of all proportion. The total expenditures of the Roosevelt administration have been $211,000,000 greater than those of Mr. McKinley's four years, and $883,000,000 larger than those of Mr. Cleveland's last term. Speaker Cannon might well say, as he said in the House in 1897, that the President should exact of his Cabinet "some degree of wholesome effort in the direction of public expenditures, to the end that Congress may not have to strive unaided and alone towards bringing our public expenditures within the sum of our public revenues."

Speaker Cannon received from the adjourning House such a tribute as probably no predecessor of his in the Chair was ever offered. In sheer intellectual greatness, in dashing leadership, in service to the country, many Speakers would come before Mr. Cannon. Blaine was far more brilliant; Randall was more massive; Carlisle more serenely and judicially impartial. Speaker Randall, by standing like granite against the wild dashings of his own party in the House, when it would have refused to carry out the findings of the Electoral Commission in 1877 and plunged the land into civil war, performed a public service beyond anything that ever fell to Mr. Cannon's lot. But none of the Speakers we have mentioned, or any other occupant of the Chair, could ever have got this unanimous election as Prince of Good Fellows. Speaker Reed might have come near it had not his mordant tongue and the fierce party controversies he aroused made men forget his abounding bonhomie. What endears Mr. Cannon to his colleagues on both sides of the House is not simply his fairness and unfailing good humor, but a quaint and picturesque quality all his own. What in another would be affectation or posing is in him the spontaneous overflow of a very sincere and rugged nature. His odd phrases go with a certain sort of whimsicality of mind, while his homely simplicity and directness breathe the genuine man. There is method, too, in his homespun bluntness. He gets things done that the masters of strategy and circumlocution would fail in. A few days ago, when the Democrats had caught the Republicans at the races, and left it doubtful if the majority party would not be outvoted, Speaker Cannon took the unprecedented step of having the roll called a third time. Mr. De Armond promptly made the point of order that this was against the rules, but the Speaker said: "The Chair will be very frank with the gentleman. The Chair is hoping that two or three more members will come in." The irregularity was lost sight of in universal laughter.

"In our own time and our own way," as Senator Lodge pithily put it, a postal investigation is to proceed. Holmes Conrad and Charles J. Bonaparte, with the possible assistance of Department officials, will continue their researches. No one doubts, so far as Messrs. Conrad and Bonaparte are concerned, that they will be relentless; but it is hardly possible that they can give the whole Department such an overhauling as the Democrats in Congress demanded. As yet nothing is said about the railway mail service, which has long been open to grave suspicion. Tactically, an investigation under the President's eye will be an advantage to the Democrats. They can assert, and with a show of reason, that the Republican majority in Congress was afraid to take the matter up exhaustively; and that so long as the scandals are kept quiet and within the family circle, the people do not really know the extent of the frauds. Many voters are already turning from the Republicans because of corruption and extravagance; and the party can ill afford at the beginning of the campaign to add to the burden of suspicion.

It is said that Secretary Shaw expects to pay $27,000,000 of the Panama Canal money out of the depository banks, and the remainder of the $50,000,000 out of the Treasury. But has all this cash yet to leave the country? What Wall Street desires to know is whether the $17,000,000 of gold already ordered for export this spring represents, to any consid-

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erable extent, the canal payments, or whether, in addition to this sum, $40,000,000 more must be shipped to France, to say nothing of the $10,000,000 due the Isthmian Government. From the point of view of our own money-market needs these are questions of some moment. But of equal interest is the effect of the payments on the European situation. It is said that Paris fears that such a large influx of gold will have a disturbing influence. Wall Street is puzzled to know just what this may mean. The only disturbing effect of the large receipts of gold on the financial situation would be an increase of speculation, and it is hardly likely that Paris would object to that. With such an enormous amount of public loans waiting a market as at present, there is every reason why a great addition to the gold supply of Europe should be welcomed.

The World's Fair at St. Louis, which was formally opened on Saturday, resembles its predecessors in being as yet only the earnest of an exhibition. A little more time will make the promise good, will fill the vast buildings with exhibits from the four quarters of the earth, and will replace the trodden ground with grass and parkways; but the general dilatoriness of such exhibitions certainly throws into sharp contrast with the tardiness of the commemoration the promptness of the act commemorated. There was less delay and circumstance in extending the United States from the Gulf of Mexico to Puget Sound than there has been in erecting the group of buildings that recalls that event. But this means not that we are more slothful than our fathers; rather that their deed has grown so tremendously in significance that it is difficult to make our retrospective tribute adequate. St. Louis at least has spared no effort to make her exhibition worthy of the event that assured the Continental preponderance of this nation. The country may now judge how far she has succeeded.

The strike of more than 1,400 bakers in Boston and surrounding cities is surprising. One wonders that Mr. Gompers did not show the Boston bakers what an unwarlike move this would be. It is much like an army deliberately denuding its base of supplies. Even labor unionists have to eat, and they are among those who will suffer most from the bakers' strike. The daily output of bread in Boston is over 300,000 loaves. Most of this amount is eaten by people of small means. The large hotels and restaurants will not be affected. The smaller hotels and eating-houses, however, depend largely on the bakers; and, as for the wage-earner, the five and ten-cent loaf is an established feature in his domestic economy. The strike has grown out of three demands made by the workers in the bakeries—an increase in wages, the union shop, and the use of the union label on every loaf of bread. It was not very long ago that the master bakers were trembling for their profits on account of the high price of flour; and now comes a demand for higher wages. In fighting for the open shop, they have lined up with a general movement in that direction. As for the union label on bread, the multitudes who find it harder to get bread on account of the strike may find the label edible.

"Divested of all claptrap," said President Mellen before an audience of railroad employees last week, "the union is simply a means of averaging wages, and an employer views it as such. It is a device for making those who are willing to work care for those who want to soldier." It is very seldom that so much truth is spoken before such a gathering, and as a clear-sighted advocate of individualism the President of the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railway must take his place beside the President of Harvard University. Mr. Mellen pointed out inexorably but with admirable sympathy the levelling tendencies of unionism. It discourages workmen of ability from doing their best, because all are classified arbitrarily as equals. It reduces the incentives to ambition. Practically, employers find it difficult to get men fit to take positions of responsibility. Every year the line is more sharply drawn by labor itself between the rank and file and the officers of labor. Meanwhile, the organizing of the unions has potently aided the consolidation of small employers into Trusts. All these criticisms of present tendencies and results of unionism were presented with absolute fearlessness and defended with cogent argument.

It is not surprising, then, that President Mellen was cheered the louder the harder he hit the pet ideas of his hearers. Workmen have so much cant talked to them and written at them that they preserve their relish for hearing plain truth unimpaired by too frequent exercise. It is surprising, however, that, in spite of his keen analysis of the defects of unionism, President Mellen still declared that he was in favor of the unions, and was willing that his own employees should seek their membership. This part of a notable address had an ominous sound when the men who joined were urged to attend the meetings and exercise control—as voters are urged to attend primaries; for the inevitable development of all organizations in this country is along political lines. The boss is as natural in trade unions as in party combinations. However, Mr. Mellen saw in the unions a fortunate means of promoting a better understanding between classes. In unionism, labor, he held, is creating a collective self, which may learn to be as amenable to good counsel as it is courageous in asserting its prerogatives. With the waning of small industries, such a body, with its leaders and spokesmen, becomes necessary if employers and employed are to come to any sort of understanding. Properly considered, then, he felt that the unions would make for social peace, and that, on the whole, capital and labor might gain more by observing reciprocally a humane diplomacy than capital would lose in partial sacrifice of control, or the individual laborer in submitting to the limitations of his class.

Once more President Eliot has spoken a man's word on the labor problem, scorning the humanitarian cant of the day, and considering the real ends which the unions must hold in view or disappear in the limbo of the ineffectual. The industrial conditions of public happiness, President Eliot told his students, are liberty for the individual citizen, the hope of improving his lot, stability of employment, and good will towards his fellow-citizens. The speaker assumed that the purpose of all combinations of laborers is, or should be, to increase the happiness of the individual workman's lot. Considered practically in this light, he found that the labor union substituted the tyranny of the organization for liberty, the law of rigid averages for the hope of individual progress, the strike for stability of employment, the boycott or overt violence for industrial good will. Here certainly is unionism judged severely, according to its works, but not unjustly.

With characteristic unselfishness, Senator Lodge has taken upon himself the task of writing the Republican platform. The President, as an ex-author, will be allowed humbly to collaborate. His part, apparently, is to be that of literary reviser, and he is already sharpening his blue pencil to cut down Lodge's periods, for the executive order has gone forth that the platform must have, as the bishop said of the young preacher's sermon, at least the merit of brevity. "Incisive, decisive, precise, and concise," is the command from the White House. But it is safe to say that one plank, at any rate, cannot be made of quarter-inch stuff. How can the ambiguities, the insincerities, the evasions of the position of the Republican party as respects the tariff possibly be condensed into a jewel five words long? One of the things which the Republicans will have to do much wriggling about is the proved practice of highly protected manufacturers of selling to foreigners at much lower prices than to their fellow-citizens. This was the sub-

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ject of an effective speech by Senator Bacon some days ago, which threw the Republican side into much confusion. It is not simply a case of the indiscreet boasting of Mr. Schwab over his ability to sell steel rails at $16 a ton, and at a profit, though the tariff helps him to fix the price at $28. Mr. Bacon read a letter from a railway manager detailing an actual sale. His road, the Macon, Dublin and Savannah, had to pay $29 a ton for steel rails to the same company that was selling them at $20 for shipment to Honduras.

"Allowing a liberal amount for cost of delivery at tide water, which in this particular case would have been very small, we American citizens paid to this American industry $33,000 in excess of what foreigners would have been compelled to pay. And $33,000 would have put up a very handsome library filled with standard books on protection."

Mr. Cord Meyer's accession to the chairmanship of the State Democratic Committee seems to be a sort of notification that Hill is not to dominate Judge Parker, nor even the management of the party in this State. Mr. Meyer is so distinctly not a Hill man that it is impossible to conceive of him as ever being a Hill man. He is simply not in that class. His acceptance of the Chairmanship is a guarantee that, in New York at least, the Democratic campaign will not be knee-deep in peanut shells. With so clean and able a Democrat at the head, Republicans will have more reason than ever to lament the blunder through which their own party labors under the odium of a Governor abdicating to make a Chairman. Mr. Odell was evidently preparing to raise the cry of Hillism. For that matter, Odellism is rapidly coming to mean something almost as offensive; but with Hill overridden at the very start in the choice of Mr. Meyer, that appeal to prejudice seems in the way to lose much of its force. It is a pity, of course, that Democratic virtue was not equal to the task of supplanting McCarren on the executive committee. No one questions his skill or energy; but his name is too unhappily identified with the kind of politics which it can only hurt his party to have made prominent in his person.

Uncle Sam's wards are giving him a good deal of trouble. Try his best, he cannot "stand pat" with them all. He is the legally appointed guardian of the Republic of Cuba. He fought and bled for that distracted people, and has justly regarded himself as *in loco parentis* to them: the Platt amendment is a constant reminder of that fact. But Cuba has just placed her benevolent guardian in a tight place. She wanted 5,000 Krag rifles for her Rural Guard, and it was instinctive to suppose that Uncle Sam would get them for her at bottom prices. Indeed, he seemed glad of the chance, and proposed to let her buy them of his own army at $14 each. But just at this point his own blood relations stepped up and asserted that they had some rights in the case. Did he suppose that the gunmakers of this country would stand any such nonsense as that? They are here to sell rifles, and he is here to help them all he can. The idea of an old gentleman trying to steal business away from his own children is truly abhorrent. Uncle Sam, though brave as a lion in most instances, has no backbone in a matter of this sort. The result is, Cuba will not get her 5,000 rifles from our army at $14 apiece, but the private manufacturers of this country will furnish her with a prime article—at a higher price. Our War Department is duly penitent, and will be more careful the next time.

As the Kaiser recrossed the Alps, President Loubet was adding Neapolitan plaudits to the splendid reception he enjoyed at Rome. Certain comparisons between the French and the German guest are inevitable. The Kaiser has made rather ineffectual efforts to arrest the decay of an alliance; President Loubet is hailed as the representative of a friendship already firm and growing. Unquestionably, President Loubet is genuinely sympathetic to the Italian masses. On the one hand they hear of his personal simplicity, on the other they acknowledge the bond that unites two countries living under similar laws and confronted with common social problems. These considerations must be vivid to the Emperor as he reviews his attempt to combine with an outing a rehabilitation of the Triple Alliance.

Many and great are the benefits which war confers on industry. Some persons suppose that the world cannot possess too much wealth for its own good; but it is easy to puncture that error. Every once in a while it is necessary to destroy a great deal of wealth in order that there may be a chance to create some more to take its place. In this way a demand is occasioned for labor and materials, and business booms—for a time. Among those who are going to benefit from the war in the Far East are the beet-sugar growers of Europe. The outlook for their business has not been promising of late, and it will take a long time to adjust it fully to the abolition of the sugar bounties by the Brussels Convention. The German refiners are satisfied that nothing but a good-sized reduction in acreage all over Europe will bring the business back to a paying basis, yet there are no signs that the beet growers of Germany intend to adopt this policy. But what they will not do for themselves, the Far Eastern war will do for them. Russia proposes rigidly to enforce the police regulations along her Prussian frontier. This means that the 300,000 Poles who flock for work into the German beet fields every spring will, for the most part, stay at home this year. How fine this will be for the German laborers, whose wage scale will go up in a lively fashion! But a higher labor cost and a positive lack of hands will compel the growers to reduce their acreage. Let no one deplore the hardship to the 300,000 Poles. Perhaps they will be sent to Mantchuria to fight for the Czar, and thus earn money enough to pay heavy war taxes to the Finance Minister.

Russophile critics at Paris have warned us in advance against mistaking voluntary retrograde movements for Russian defeats, and yet it will be difficult to minimize the moral and strategic advantage the Japanese get by setting foot in Mantchuria. The facts of the three days' battle speak for themselves. Throwing pontoon bridges across the Yalu near Wiju, while fording at a point higher up, the Japanese advanced under cover of a crushing artillery fire. Successive defences of the Russians were reduced by the Japanese batteries, until finally Gen. Kuroki held a line four miles long, and drove the Russians back towards their headquarters at Feng-Wang-Cheng. The losses are considerable, even for an engagement of this magnitude and duration. The Russians, who were not in great force about Antung, resisted stubbornly a force about five times their own. Skilful handling of the artillery played the larger part in the Japanese success. Nothing is clearer than that the Japanese batteries outclassed the Russians in weight, numbers, and handling; Russian dispatches admit "overwhelming superiority" in this regard. Twenty-eight guns abandoned in the trenches show very plainly that the Russian batteries were insufficiently supported by infantry, and that the retreat must have lacked something of the "good order" reported to the Russian General Staff. There was no sound strategic reason for falling back from the Yalu except inability to hold that line. As a matter of fact, the Russian main force at Feng-Wang-Cheng is far from being in an easy position. It may be cut off from the Liao peninsula by a flanking movement from Taku-Shan at the south, and it even runs some risk of being taken in the rear by a descent from New-Chwang. Either landing operation would be of great difficulty, but it would be hardly more of an exploit to land under the fire of a squadron than to bridge the Yalu in the face of entrenched batteries. In fact, as we go to press, there are rumors of the fall of New-Chwang, simultaneously with a naval diversion against Port Arthur with bombs and fireships. But they are unconfirmed and are inherently improbable.

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THE SESSION.

The second session of the Fifty-eighth Congress came to a close on Thursday at a date without precedent in recent years. As a rule, it has been considered extraordinary if Congress could adjourn in a Presidential year by the time of the National Conventions; but here we have the whole thing over, two months before the first of them. This will doubtless long stand as "the record." Whether it will be thought in the future even desirable to imitate the example will depend largely, we imagine, on the apparent result this year. If the effect on the Administration's fortunes seems to be favorable, other Presidents will doubtless display an anxiety equal to that of Mr. Roosevelt to get Congress "off his hands" early.

On general principles, there is no reason to regret that the session was unusually short. Too much legislation rather than too little is our curse. Overgoverning is one of the vices of our day, almost as bad as the over-tutoring that seems to go with it, intolerable as the latter is, according to Matthew Arnold. A longer session this year would have meant chiefly longer beating of the air with campaign speeches. The paralysis of "Presidential year" was more than usually severe upon Congress, this time. All was pose for political effect; and if two months more in session would have meant only two months more of posing, it is just as well that the theatre was closed and the actors dismissed.

Beyond the routine bills of supply, Congress has little to point to as the fruit of its five months' activity. A barren record, however, may be a really useful record if it involves the death of bad bills. But this Congress has simply left the bad bills in a state of suspended animation. Everything was put over till December—the anti-injunction bill, the eight-hour bill, the Philippine railway-guarantee bill, the bill for the protection of the President, the subsidy bill, and one does not know how many more. Afraid either to pass or defeat them, Congress resorted to delay. Of course, the delay means defeat for any measure stoutly opposed. The session beginning in December will expire by limitation on March 4, and the appropriation bills can easily be made to crowd obnoxious measures off the track. Hence a postponement to December is generally tantamount to postponement to the Greek Kalends.

Turning from the beggarly account of work done, to the tendencies and personalities conspicuous in the session, we have to ask, first, how stands the case of the House against the Senate? Speaker Cannon, we were told, was to reassert the ancient privileges and restore the traditional prestige of the Representatives as against the Senators. How has he fared? Something has undoubtedly been accomplished. At the extra session, the Speaker stood like a rock against the Senate's plan of adjournment. This ruffled the feelings of godlike Senators, and drove President Roosevelt to the metaphysics of his "constructive recess." Score one for the House. But in the subsequent encounters its advantage has not been so evident. To figure out a slight percentage more of items in appropriation bills "conceded" by the Senate than by the House, is not the heroic thing we were promised. That is not to vindicate the absolute control of the power of the purse by the lower chamber. In practice, what we feared has too often turned out to be the case. Senators, among their other possessions, own a certain number of Representatives. The latter cannot, therefore, be expected to say to their political creator, "What doest thou?" In order really to cut down the overweening power of the Senate, and to rein in its arrogant pretensions, something must be done to strike at the hidden and, often, the abhorrent means of aggrandizement upon which Senators grow great. We are unable to see that any progress in that direction has been made.

Personality, however, makes up the main charm of politics, as of everything else, and it is in the personal aspect that the session is most memorable. We have had a partial revival of parliamentary oratory, and we have seen a successful parliamentary leader emerge. The great impression produced by Mr. Cockran's speeches shows how eager the House still is to listen to a heaven-born orator, even if his resounding eloquence prove often only the sound of a mighty rushing wind. But it is the appearance and triumph of Mr. Williams of Mississippi as the leader of the minority which really makes the session notable. A man unknown before except to his colleagues, he has made himself at once a national figure. This he has done by his tact, his alertness, his good nature, his wit, his keen eye for an opening, his perception when to be silent as well as when to speak, and by the resources of a trained and well-stored mind. It is a case where education is justified of her children, for Mr. Williams had an unusual university career, in this country and in Germany. His grasp of economic and political principle is firm, and he has the happiest faculty for pointing the truth by some homely illustration. His neat puncturing of the balance-of-trade humbug, for example, was inimitable. Of course, he has shone partly by contrast with his Republican antagonists. Payne, Grosvenor, and Dalzell, as the Republican paladins, show upon what an evil day their party has fallen in the House. But Representative Williams is a man whose qualities would command respect under any conditions. He has made his party in the House a unit, and restored it as a watchful, aggressive, and hopeful Opposition. To have done that is a great distinction; and in Mr. Williams's rise to prominence we see fresh reason to believe in the undeveloped and inexhaustible political resources of our country.

ROOSEVELT AND GROSVENOR.

President Roosevelt may well pray to be delivered from his friends—especially from Representative Grosvenor. A few days ago Mr. Kitchin of North Carolina made in the House a speech in which he showed what President Roosevelt thought of Grosvenor and what Grosvenor thought of Roosevelt. The full report of these speeches, since issued in the *Congressional Record*, is even more instructing and entertaining than the brief press abstracts.

Mr. Kitchin called attention to a passage in 'American Ideals,' in which Roosevelt, the civil-service reformer, writes Grosvenor down as one of the "champions of foul government and dishonest politics," who "fight [against the reform] with the vindictiveness natural to men who see a chance of striking at the institution which has baffled their ferocious greed." "These men," added Roosevelt, "have a gift at office-mongering, just as other men have a peculiar knack of picking other people's pockets."

Some persons would have been pained by such a flaying, but not Grosvenor. His hide is the toughest in Congress—or his heart the most forgiving. He admits that he had "a sharp contention" with Roosevelt; but, he protests, "I had stood firmly then where I stand now." He "did not believe that the machinery of this Civil Service Commission was a proper adjunct to the administration of a great Government," and he has "never changed" his mind. His patriotic course was dictated merely by a desire to "protest against the absorption of the political power of this country by the Civil Service Commission." So much for the whiteness of Grosvenor's soul and the purity of his motives. But, singularly enough, Roosevelt's attitude was equally correct. The fastidious Grosvenor would have thought "vastly less of the President if he had not in those days of contention used strong language in denouncing the men" who voted "to strike out the pay of the Civil Service Commission." This strong language so endeared Roosevelt to Grosvenor that the Congressman frankly admits: "He wrote of me what he had the right to write. He wrote of me that I was one of the active and strong opponents of the doctrine, and he used language that was by no means unfitted for the occasion from the standpoint that he believed at the time." In licking the hand that strikes, Grosvenor has

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no equal. Were all of us so filled with Christian charity, the way to bind men to you in friendship stronger than hooks of steel would be to denounce them as corrupt and dishonest, little better than pickpockets.

In explaining his own attack on Roosevelt in 1900 Grosvenor is even more ingenuous. During the Philadelphia Convention, Grosvenor served as a special correspondent of the New York *Journal*, an "enterprising newspaper," whose editor, though naturally admired by Grosvenor, is now "being hounded." Mr. Grosvenor had complained that a certain Theodore Roosevelt, "a brilliant, erratic, curious sort of a man," was being used by "a great herd of selfish politicians" "for their own selfish and shameful ends." On such a topic Grosvenor could speak with authority. He therefore proceeded to tell how these politicians were trying to "dump" Roosevelt upon the Presidential ticket in the "sole and sordid interests of themselves and their own schemes of politics." These plotters were striving to force upon McKinley "a distasteful running-mate." But Grosvenor explains that he merely wrote "the popular opinion" of Roosevelt; that he had never "associated intimately in public life" with Roosevelt—a deprivation which he regards as a "misfortune." Moreover, Mr. Grosvenor does not remember saying that Roosevelt was distasteful; at any rate, he himself cheerfully swallowed the dose.

Having thus buried the dead past, the Ohio apologist began his eulogy of the Roosevelt of to-day. He assured his listeners that the promise to carry out the McKinley policy had "saved the loss to the people of this country in money alone of hundreds of millions of dollars." The trouble, so the defender of Roosevelt asserts, was that "it was *natural to fear*, and we all did fear, that there would be a panic in Wall Street," an "immeasurable stampede of destruction." But this general dread of Mr. Roosevelt vanished when his voice "stilled the rising tide as the voice that on the lake spoke the words, 'Peace, be still,' and allayed the storm."

Not content with this back-handed compliment to the President, Grosvenor proceeded: "I have never known a public man holding a high position that was more amenable to the sentiment of public declarations and the advice of his party and those surrounding him." On the inflexible Roosevelt, always courageous in clinging to his convictions, Grosvenor throws this further light: "I could go into details, showing where he here changed his policy upon a certain thing, and there changed his declarations in his message, and here did this to accommodate the opinion of men surrounding him." From "personal acquaintance" with both men Grosvenor avers: "There has been less of determined purpose to carry out his own personal views in public affairs than there was with Mr. McKinley."

It is no marvel, then, that Grosvenor concludes: "I speak with no extravagance when I say that his judgment upon the great public questions of the day has been unerring." Such is the tribute from the great and good Grosvenor to "the stone which the builders tried to reject," but which "has become the head of the Republican corner." No one is disposed to take Grosvenor's utterances very seriously—least of all ourselves. Nothing he can say will alter the general estimate of his own character; but the inevitable inference from his words corroborates his explicit statement that "four years have developed this man" Roosevelt; and that they have developed him, not in his early ideals, but in the "practical" side of politics, to which Grosvenor is so ardently devoted.

TRADING WITH CANADA.

Senator Lodge will shortly be informing the people of Massachusetts that he disapproves of them. Three weeks ago he went on from Washington to tell the State Convention not to touch that unclean thing, Canadian reciprocity. Yet the Committee on Federal Relations in the Massachusetts Legislature promptly had before it a memorial to Congress for a trade treaty with Canada, and, still more rebellious, the Boston Chamber of Commerce received a petition signed by over 35,000 business men of the State, asking it to undertake an agitation in favor of the wicked policy. The people are thus selfishly placing their own interests before those of the party. The "American idea" is nothing to them; the "Massachusetts idea" everything.

The mischief of it is that the manufacturers of Massachusetts perceive that they must buy as well as sell. In particular, they desire Canadian coal, asserting that if they can get that they can keep their mills and factories from drifting to other parts of the United States. Lodge does not care how much New England sells to Canada, but he sees nothing but ruin in purchasing from that quarter. Another Massachusetts man, Secretary Moody, once summed up the "American idea" in a sentence. The balance of trade with Canada, he said, is constantly in our favor, "and it would seem as if we had no ground for complaint." Certainly on this score we have no fault to find; for, since the Dingley law was passed, the excess in our favor has mounted from less than $25,000,000 annually to about $68,500,000. In other words, our exports to Canada have increased from $64,928,921 in 1897 to $123,266,788 in 1903; and our imports from $40,309,371 to $54,781,418. But nobody knows how much the relation of exports to imports has been affected by causes in no way concerned with the tariff. For instance, the investment of large amounts of American capital in manufacturing and trade in Canada during the last six or seven years has probably had a great deal to do with creating a new demand for goods made on this side of the line.

Trade between this country and Canada is bound in the main to follow natural lines, tariff or no tariff. The freight rate has much to do with determining the market in which any article shall be sold. That factor would prevent really competing Canadian products from penetrating this country very far, in any event. Where they do go far beyond the frontier, it is because we must have them. In that case the tariff means only a needless expense. Unfortunately, the Cape Breton coal mines are too far from Boston to allow their product to be bought freely despite the tariff. And, reversing the case, Toronto, Hamilton, London, and other Middle Canada cities are too far from the coal deposits of our Middle States to admit of their buying as much as their real industrial development calls for. From New Brunswick practically to the Rocky Mountains the veins are on this side of the line, and that part of the Dominion is largely dependent upon us. On the Pacific slope the situation is, however, reversed; British Columbia has most of the coal, and our extreme Northwestern States would be greatly benefited by free access to it.

Despite all the artificial barriers that have been erected, commodities of similar classes pass to and fro. During the nine months ending last March we imported 1,046,388 tons of coal from Canada, and exported 4,510,836 tons; 15,458,313 pounds of refined copper were imported, and 2,287,796 pounds exported. From Canada we received 3,704,355 pounds of refined sugar, and sent her 1,882,082 pounds in return. She exported to us $6,425,481 of boards and sawed lumber, but we managed to sell her $2,397,862. These are all comparatively small items, but they show that it is give and take between the two countries, even on competing articles, when the transportation charges are right. In some localities goods can be imported into the United States because the transportation cost, plus the tariff duty, is less than the cost of bringing similar commodities from more remote American centres. The same is true on the other side of the line. Sometimes it is nip and tuck, as in British Columbia, where American and Canadian flour has in the past sold in nearly equal quantities, the duty and railroad freight about offsetting each other.

We do our best to keep Canadian goods out of this country, but we are rushing our people and our money over the line in lively fashion. Last year thirty thousand Americans, with their families, settled in Canada, chiefly as farmers. In

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the last few years a vast amount of our capital has been placed in all sorts of industrial enterprises in the Dominion. Thus both farmers and capitalists, if we may believe the protectionists, have been at work to ruin the country that nurtured them. Even now their products are knocking for admission into the United States. The danger is lest this in time corrupt those of us who have stayed at home. We shall soon forget that a bushel of Manitoba wheat will not create as much American manhood in the consumer as a bushel of Minnesota wheat.

ALDRICH ON SMALL CHANGE.

Senator Aldrich led a successful retreat from an untenable position just before the adjournment of Congress. The Committee on Appropriations, apparently at his instance, had proposed, and the Senate had adopted, an amendment to the Sundry Civil bill removing all limitations upon the subsidiary silver coinage. This amendment had met objections in the conference committee, which caused the Senate members to recede from it. In submitting the report from the conference, Senator Allison gave the *pas* to Senator Aldrich to make explanations to the Senate on this point. The latter said that, *after* the Senate had agreed to the amendment, the Committees on Finance and Appropriations had very carefully gone over the subject and had come to the unanimous opinion that this amendment, or its equivalent, had been adopted in the Sundry Civil bill of last year, and hence was superfluous, and for that reason should be withdrawn.

A carping critic might say that committees of the Senate are appointed to "carefully go over" such matters *before* the Senate takes action on them. In this instance there was a further reason for following that mode of procedure, since the Senator, in his remarks, quoted from a letter addressed to him by the Secretary of the Treasury a little earlier, calling his attention to the clause in the Sundry Civil bill of last year. In this letter the Secretary expressed the opinion that it did not remove the limitations on the subsidiary silver coinage in general, but only on that which might be produced from bullion purchased under the Sherman act of 1890.

Mr. Aldrich assured his fellow-Senators that the last year's enactment removed all limitations, and, in order to prove his contention, he would have the clause in question appended to his remarks and printed in the *Record*, together with the previous law to which it referred. Then, with some sarcastic remarks on certain "hysterical" persons, "not members of this body," he was glad to say, but presumably of the other body, he handed in the extracts from the two laws which he relied on to justify his retreat.

The clause of last year's bill says that "the authority given to the Secretary of the Treasury to coin subsidiary silver coin by the 8th section of an act . . . approved March 14, 1900, may hereafter be exercised without limitation as to the amount of such subsidiary coin outstanding." Reference to the 8th section of the act of 1900 shows that the authority given was solely "to use any silver bullion in the Treasury of the United States purchased under the act of July 14, 1890 [the Sherman act] for coinage into such denominations of subsidiary silver coin as may be necessary to meet the public requirements for such coin; provided that the amount of subsidiary silver coin outstanding shall not at any time exceed in the aggregate $100,000,000." Thus the authority given by the act of 1900 was to coin a particular lot of bullion within a specified limit as to amount. The authority given by the act of 1903 was to coin the same lot of bullion without any limitation of amount. The Secretary of the Treasury so understands it, and the Director of the Mint agrees with him, and Senator Aldrich must have agreed with their interpretation until last Wednesday. It is not likely that these responsible officers will accept Mr. Aldrich's revised opinion in place of their own in a matter involving the policy of the Government in dealing with the silver question. It would be very risky for them to do so, for even if they were inclined to take such shelter, there is no knowing how soon the Senator from Rhode Island may change his opinion again.

The plain English of the matter is, that the Secretary and the Director and a majority of the House desire to recoin the silver dollars in the Treasury into subsidiary coins as fast as the growth of population and of retail trade shall call for more small change. The annual increment is now at the average rate of $5,500,000 per year. No revolution in the currency can take place by reason of this, but a slow replacement will be effected, the cart-wheel dollars reappearing in the circulation as halves, quarters, and dimes, and gold flowing in to take the place of them. Gold has been flowing into the circulation since 1900 at the rate of $66,000,000 net per year in the form of certificates alone. According to the calculations of the Director of the Mint, gold has been, and still is, finding lodgment among us at the rate of $90,000,000 or more per year, in all forms—a fact which ought to steady the nerves of any who may be troubled about the Panama Canal payments. At all events, nobody can imagine that there will be any shortage of legal-tender money consequent upon the recoinage of the old Bland dollars into halves, quarters, and dimes as fast as there is a demand for them. Two years ago the House passed a bill for such recoinage, but the Senate Committee on Finance killed it. There was, perhaps, no need of additional subsidiary coins at that time, but there is such a need now, or soon will be. Under existing law, whenever the limitation of $100,000,000 on such coinage is removed, additional silver bullion must be purchased for any increment. That is what Mr. Aldrich favors, but does not, up to the present time, avow. That is what Secretary Shaw, Director Roberts, and the "hysterical" members of the House are opposed to. They desire to save some of the money that the Government has invested in Bland dollars (five hundred carloads of them)—to save some of it now and eventually the whole; and at the same time to purge the currency of an unwholesome element. When Senator Aldrich next explains, let him give some attention to this branch of the subject. We are sure that his constituents would like to know what he thinks about it.

THE WAR DIET IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, April 7, 1904.

The war Diet and its work rightly claim a share of current interest. They shed light on national feeling, political conditions, and financial measures—prime factors in the war problem. The extra session of the Diet was formally opened on March 20 and closed on March 30. History strikingly repeats itself. The constitutional life of Japan covers only fifteen years, yet this is the second time that the Diet has met in extraordinary session. Both Diets were hastily convoked to meet the exigencies of war. Both Diets were newly elected after two successive dissolutions. Both came back with large majorities hostile to the Ministry. Yet both war Diets zealously put aside for the time all partisan issues, and unanimously voted the means and the measures required by the Ministry for the successful conduct of the war. The hope of the enemy to find Japan weakened by internal dissensions was therefore in both cases vain. In each case the war is waged against the Colossus which for a time had seemed to dominate the Orient and to overawe the world. In each case the stated purpose of the war is—ironical as it may seem—"to establish the peace of the Orient." The first war quickly laid the seeming fierce and mighty adversary low. The second war—awaits the issue.

In a twofold sense this is a war Diet. It is a child of the war, and it has to vote the measures required by the war. The election (March 1) of the present Diet occurred under the drowning enthusiasm of the first brilliant victories of war. The last Diet, after a single day of actual life, was snuffed out of existence because, in its reply to the address from the throne, it had censured the Ministry both for its domestic and for its foreign policy. Its predecessor had, one year before (December, 1902), refused assent to the budget of this same Cabinet, and had in consequence been dissolved. These facts would, under ordinary circumstances, assure a spirited election contest. The unusual apathy which in

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fact marked the election was due partly to the excitement of war, and partly to the certainty that partisan issues would be shelved during the war.

The main facts concerning representation in the present Diet are: That the Constitutional party (*Seiyu-kai*) numbers a little more, the unaffiliated members (Independents?) a little less, than one-third, and the Progressives about one-fourth of the total; that the number of the Constitutional party was much diminished, the number of unaffiliated members much increased, by the last election; that the Constitutional party and the Progressives, which have for two years coöperated in opposition to the Ministry, together have a clear majority of nearly thirty in the lower house; that nearly one-third of the present members sit in the Diet for the first time, nearly two-thirds were members of the last Diet, and only one-seventh of them sat in any previous Diet; that the representatives of urban districts make up one-fifth of the total membership.

In preliminary party conferences, both the Constitutional party and the Progressives censured the Ministry for divers shortcomings and wrongdoings—political capital created for future use; then resolved to grant all the funds and all the powers necessary for the Government to attain the object of the war. In party councils and in the Diet it was much emphasized that the naval victories and foreign sympathy were won by Japan because of her constitutional and enlightened government, and that the nation must therefore continue to march in the ranks with the other progressive peoples. The main work of the Diet was to vote supplies for the war. In the budget estimates of the Government the war expenditures for the year, including a contingent fund of forty million yen, were put at five hundred and seventy-six million yen. It was proposed to raise this sum thus:

From increased taxation	68,000,000
From surplus revenues	47,000,000
From Treasury bonds	31,000,000
From funds taken, or to be taken, from special accounts	50,000,000
From loans (including 100 millions issued)	380,000,000
Total	576,000,000

Treasury bonds must ultimately be paid and the funds taken from special accounts be restored. Hence the aggregate loans are to be (31+50+380) four hundred and sixty-one million yen. At 5 per cent., the yearly interest on this sum would be slightly over twenty-three millions. Supposing the forty-seven million of "surplus revenues" to be only a temporary asset, the sixty-eight million of additional taxes would pay the interest and cancel the debt in a little over ten years.

The Government proposed to obtain the additional taxes in four ways: (1) by raising the rate of some dozen classes of taxes, chiefly land, business and income, sugar, soy, kerosene, and stamp duties; (2) by increasing certain import duties, chiefly on tobacco, kerosene, and some textiles; (3) by imposing new (15 per cent.) taxes on silk goods and woollen goods; (4) by creating a state monopoly of the salt manufacture and the tobacco manufacture. The Diet rejected the tax on silk goods and the salt monopoly. It reduced the rate on agricultural lands from 4½ per cent. to 4 3-10 per cent., and increased the sums to be obtained from the tobacco monopoly, the sugar tax, and the import duties. The net result of changes thus effected was a deficit of 6,171,561 yen, which the Government agreed to cover by raising the price of tobacco, effecting economies, and drawing on the capital funds.

The increase of land-tax burdens is greater in appearance than in fact. About one-third of the total increased yield of taxation is to come from the land tax, of which the rate is raised nominally thus:

	Increase p. c.
On urban building lands, from 2½ per cent. to 8 per cent.	5.5
On rural building lands, from 2½ per cent. to 6 per cent.	3.5
On other lands, from 2½ per cent. to 4.3 per cent.	1.8

The weight of the seeming increase is vastly lessened by two facts. (1.) The tax is assessed, not on the real value of the land, but on a nominal (cadastral or "legal") value, which is usually much less than the real value—in the case of building lands often absurdly small. (2.) The nominal increase of the land tax represents increase, not over rates which land owners have been paying, but over rates which they had paid before 1899. The rates of the land tax had been raised for the five years 1899-1903, inclusive, to very near the new nominal rates. Thus, the tax paid on "other (agricultural) lands" till the beginning of the current year was 4 per cent., instead of 4 3-10 per cent., as now imposed. The actual increase in this tax is therefore only three-tenths of 1 per cent. Furthermore, the cadastral nature of the land tax makes its yield accurately calculable in advance.

Next in importance to the land tax is the estimated yield (about 13 per cent. of the increase) of the business and income taxes. These are raised by an amount equal to 70 per cent. of the existing (national) rates. (The business tax is assessed on a very complicated basis.) The personal income tax (national) is graded from 1 per cent. on incomes of 300 yen, reaching 1½ per cent. on 1,000 yen, 2 per cent. on 3,000, 2½ per cent. on 5,000, 3 per cent. on 10,000, 4 per cent. on 20,000, 5 per cent. on 50,000, 5½ per cent. on 100,000 yen or more. A supplementary tax of one-half the above rates is added for local purposes (but not on the recent increase). The total increased rates (including supplement for local purposes) of the income tax will therefore range from 2 1-5 per cent. on incomes of 300 yen to 5½ per cent. on 5,000, and 12 1-10 per cent. on 100,000 yen or more. The income tax for "legal persons" is uniform at 2½ per cent., subject to the supplementary local rates and the 70 per cent. increase. Incomes derived from interest on public or corporation bonds are uniformly taxed 2 per cent., and are not subject to the recent increase—a provision doubtless intended to favor both Government credit and joint-stock enterprises. Moderate personal incomes are subject to rates similar to those attained in England during the South African war. But on both larger and smaller incomes nominal rates in Japan are much heavier than in England.

The sugar tax is expected to yield another 13 per cent. of the increase. Here again the rates are heavy—2, 4.60, 5.50, and 6.50 yen per picul (133 pounds) respectively on the four grades of sugar. But sugar is regarded in Japan as a luxury. If it is in fact a luxury, the crucial question will be whether sufficient allowance has been made for shrinkage of demand at higher prices.

The tobacco monopoly is not wholly an experiment. Since 1898 the Government has maintained a monopoly of raw (leaf) tobacco. It is now proposed to include the tobacco manufacture and trade. The plan to do this had been urged for several years. It met with little opposition in the recent session of the Diet. The amount of compensation to be given to existing tobacco manufacturers and the method of distributing the grant among them caused much discussion. The Government proposed to give to the manufacturers (in the form of 5 per cent. seven-year bonds) a bonus equal to three years' profits calculated and distributed according to the amount of business taxes paid by them. But the Diet substituted the principle of giving to each manufacturer a lump sum equal to 20 per cent. of his gross sales for one year. According to the Government plan, some manufacturers would have obtained only 18 per cent. of their gross sales for one year, while the largest company would have received 54 per cent. on its gross sales for one year, amounting to more than one-half of the total sum paid by the Government. Hence the action has created much discontent and sharp criticism.

Two other actions of the Diet are widely regarded as inexpedient: (1.) On behalf of the Treasury, the Industrial Bank was authorized to issue, within the limit of thirty million yearly, and at 4 per cent. maximum interest, premium-bearing bonds of five yen denomination. The theory is that these bonds will be extensively bought by members of the laboring classes, and cause a large part of the funds paid out by the Government to return to it. On the urgent request of the Prime Minister the bill was passed as a temporary war measure. (2.) The Diet insisted that the laws for increasing taxes should cease to operate within the calendar year following the end of the war. As the political parties have only made a truce with the Ministry, they clearly propose to hold fast to all points of vantage from which in future to attack the Government. This simply reveals the struggle of the lower house to make the Ministry responsible to itself—a struggle which is the key to recent Japanese politics; not necessarily an organic weakness of the political system, but rather a natural and necessary phase of the present stage of Japanese constitutional progress. It is none the less unfortunate, because for the time being it impairs the credit of the Government. But, in the opinion of the national press, all shortcomings of the Diet were atoned for by a resolution which stated that the Emperor had declared war in order to secure permanent peace in the Far East, and that the Diet had voted and, however remote the end of the war, would vote abundant supplies to attain that end. The *Jiji Shimpo*, which deplored a few acts of the Diet, concludes its leader on the work of the Diet thus: "But what country is there whose parliamentary history is without its dark pages, especially during its early period? Japan is yet young under her constitutional régime, and a few blemishes may well be overlooked, so long as the Diet is proving on the whole an indispensable body for national development." This is eminently just; for, after all, the main fact stands out that, as far

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as the war is concerned, the Diet revealed a unified and resolute nation, while its work amply meets all war requirements.

E. H. VICKERS.

GREEK SITES IN THE ÆGEAN AND ASIA MINOR.

ATHENS, April 15, 1904.

A tour among the islands of the Ægean and along the coast of Asia Minor is a constant delight to the lover of beautiful scenery, and offers much that is of interest to the geologist and the naturalist. But its chief interest, even for those who are not archæologists by profession, is historical and archæological. Traces of ancient occupation are visible almost everywhere, and in recent years excavations have been carried on at many of the more important sites. At most places the excavations of the present season are only just beginning; but the results of last year's work and the work of previous seasons are not in every instance generally known.

Excavations were begun at Delos by the French School at Athens in 1873, and were carried on more or less energetically from 1877 to 1894. Last year they were taken up again, and a fund of 50,000 francs is available for further work. In the earlier days of the work the earth and débris were not thrown into the sea or otherwise removed, but each part of the site excavated was covered by the material from other parts. As a result, the field of excavation presented a very confusing and unattractive appearance. Now the removal of the earth, etc., has been begun. The court to the east of the "portico of Philip" is completely cleared, and that and the neighboring parts of the site are in good order. But much still remains to be done before the entire excavated field can present an orderly appearance. The site is an exceptionally interesting one on account of the importance of Delos at various periods. As yet the most imposing ruins belong to Hellenistic and Roman times, for but little remains of the temple of Apollo and other earlier structures. Some of the houses of Roman times are interesting, and retain their mosaic pavements and even parts of their painted decoration. The entire site, when completely cleared, will no doubt be one of the most interesting in Greece, in spite of the fact that most of the remains still to be found will probably prove to be of comparatively late date. Already the excavated area, with the remains of the theatre, of temples, porticos, market place, treasuries, storehouses, and dwellings, is one of the largest in Greece, and as yet only a comparatively small part of the site has been laid bare. The portable objects found at Delos are, with some exceptions, kept at the village of Mykonos, on the island of the same name. Among them is an interesting series of archaic draped female figures found near the temple of Artemis. They resemble very closely the figures found on the Acropolis at Athens. But perhaps the most interesting things at Mykonos are the vases found at Rheneia. A great number of these show the style which has until recently been called Melian. The curator of antiquities at Mykonos, Dr. Stavropoulos, has put these vases together out of many fragments with the greatest skill and patience. Other vases found in surroundings which fix their date just before 425 B. C. show the decadence of the red-figured style at that time.

At Melos the site of the Hellenic town offers little of interest, though the Roman theatre is worth a visit. Nothing marks the spot where the famous Aphrodite in the Louvre was found. The most interesting site on the island is at present Phylakopi, some five or six miles from the harbor. Here the British School at Athens has excavated three settlements, one above the other, the latest of which belongs to Mycenæan times. The three strata are clearly to be seen. The place can never have been a great city, but must have been of considerable importance when its chief export, obsidian, was in great demand. The results of the excavations have just been published as a supplementary paper of the Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies. They are of especial importance on account of the light thrown upon early Ægean art and civilization.

The island of Thera, or Santorin, is well worth a visit on account of its remarkable harbor, even if there were nothing of interest to be seen after landing. The harbor is the immense crater of an extinct volcano, and is almost surrounded by nearly vertical cliffs, while in the middle of it are three small islands forming a smaller and later crater, which still shows signs of activity. Here the water is always warm and much discolored, and smoke and steam often rise into the air. Vessels frequently lie for a night beside these little islands, that the hot and sulphurous water may cleanse them of barnacles. The town of Thera, or Phira, one of the largest of the clean white towns of the Ægean Archipelago, is perched high on the cliffs above the harbor. It has a well-built and convenient little museum, in which are exhibited the objects of interest found on the island. Until recently Thera was familiar to archæologists mainly on account of the peculiar "pre-Mycenæan" vases found there, the chief specimens of which are at the École Française at Athens, though some are in the museum at Thira. In recent years, however, Baron F. Hiller v. Gaertringen has undertaken a thorough investigation of the island and its remains of antiquity. The ancient town was built on the ridge of a steep hill, the highest point of which is some 1,200 feet above the sea that washes its base. It seems strange that any people should have chosen this wind-swept and waterless height for their city, but here have been laid bare remains of buildings and other signs of habitation extending from the eighth century B. C., or even earlier, to late Roman times. Of the walls still standing the greater part belongs to the Hellenistic and Roman periods. Few parts of Greece have been so thoroughly explored as Thera, owing to the devotion and energy of Baron Hiller and his associates, the results of whose labors will fill four large volumes, two of which have already appeared.

The ancient city of Samos was on a high hill near the modern town of Tigani. A large part of the city wall can still be traced, and on the acropolis the fine Hellenic walls of large squared blocks are in part well preserved. The ancient aqueduct, of the sixth century B. C., cut through the hill, can be followed with the aid of candles for several hundred yards. But the centre of interest is naturally the great temple of Hera, situated by the seashore some four miles from the present harbor. Excavations were carried on here in 1902 and last summer by Mr. Cavvadias, the Greek ephor-general of antiquities. He laid bare the foundations of the temple, which stand in part upon the substructure of an earlier building. The plan has one marked peculiarity: there were eight columns at the east front, but at the west, where there was no door in the middle, there were nine columns. The reason for this is probably to be found in the difficulty experienced in obtaining epistyle blocks of the great size required to span the intercolumniations. At the east end, where a door was essential, an intercolumniation at the middle was necessary, and an odd number of columns was out of the question. The great epistyle blocks had therefore to be obtained and put in place in spite of all difficulties. At the west end the addition of one column reduced the size of the blocks materially. The north and south sides had each twenty-four columns. The only column still standing was never finished, being still unfluted, but its base is Ionic, and the bases and drums of other columns are of the same style. One entire Ionic echinus and two fragments, all with large egg-and-dart moulding, are preserved, but there are no traces of volutes. Vitruvius says that Theodorus, one of the architects of the temple of Samos, wrote about the Doric temple of Hera at Samos, and Mr. Cavvadias has proposed to complete the capitals of the columns by adding a simple square Doric abacus instead of Ionic volutes. It certainly is odd that no fragments of volutes have come to light, but such a contamination of Doric and Ionic elements as Mr. Cavvadias suggests would be most remarkable in a building of the sixth century. It would be simpler to believe that the Ionic columns belong to a later rebuilding of the temple, and that the volutes have all disappeared in limekilns. At the east of the temple are remains of a propylon or similar structure, in the midst of which are the foundations of a Byzantine church. Upon these stands a small modern church. Several small shrines, apparently of late Greek or Roman times, existed close to the temple, and many fragments of richly decorated architectural members are lying about. There is evidently much work still to be done at this place, and it is to be hoped that it may be accomplished without long delay.

In Crete, which has been the scene of such remarkable discoveries, the season's work has begun. Mr. Evans is again exploring the great palace at Cnossus, and is also excavating in the neighboring necropolis, where he has already opened more than seventy tombs. The earliest of these are of Mycenæan date, of the "third-palace period," while others are of Roman times. Several interesting objects have been found, including pottery, bronze vessels, and utensils of various kinds. One Mycenæan bronze sword has a gold handle upon which are engraved lions hunting their prey. The Italian excavators are busy at Agia Triada, near Phæstus, the British School has returned to its labors at Palaikastro, and Miss Boyd is again at Gournia. In the museum at Candia the portable ob-

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jects from all these and other places in Crete are now admirably exhibited. The curator, Mr. Hatzidakis, deserves the greatest credit for the promptness, energy, and care displayed in the restoration, preservation, and arrangement of the priceless treasures under his charge. It is a pity, however, that the building containing those treasures is not fireproof, and is in no way whatever protected from conflagration. The precious records of the pre-Hellenic civilization of Crete—the wall-paintings from Cnossus and Phæstus, the brilliantly painted sarcophagi and the wonderfully carved steatite vases from Agia Triada, the beautiful painted jars and other monuments of early art from various parts of the island—may all be destroyed by the dropping of a match! Probably a suitable museum building will be provided in a short time. Meanwhile, it is a great boon that the unrivalled collection of treasures is in careful and intelligent hands.

Of the Greek cities in Asia Minor, Ephesus and Miletus were in ancient times among the most important, and at these two places the Austrians and Germans respectively are carrying on thorough excavations. At Ephesus the excavations of the present season have not begun, for the greater part of the ancient city lies so low that the water makes digging impossible until the summer is more advanced. In the last few years the great theatre has been cleared, several detached monuments have been investigated, the city walls and the water works have been studied, and much of the business quarter of the city has been laid bare. Unfortunately, there is so much water in this region in March and early April that the details of some of the buildings are difficult to trace, but the broad paved way, flanked with colonnades, which led from the theatre to the harbor, the spacious agora, with its long porticos, and the buildings along the quay bear evidence to the importance and magnificence of the city in the Hellenistic and Roman times, to which most of these remains belong. Opening from the agora is a building—apparently a library or something of the sort—erected by a man named Celsus in the days of the Antonines, the decorative carving of which is exceptionally rich. Of the smaller objects found at Ephesus, the most remarkable is the bronze statue of a nude youth somewhat above life size. This was found in many pieces, but has been most skilfully restored at Vienna, where it now is. The youth is represented scraping himself with a strigil. The plausible suggestion has been made that the statue is a work of Dædalus, a grandson of the famous Polyclitus. The great temple of Artemis, partially excavated by Mr. Wood, is soon to be more completely excavated by Mr. Hogarth of the British Museum.

At Miletus the German excavators, under the direction of Dr. Wiegand, are already at work. The excavations were begun in 1900 and have entirely cleared the magnificent theatre, the town house, or bouleuterion, with its porpylæum, large enclosed court, great altar, and assembly hall, as well as several less important buildings. An interesting feature of the bouleuterion is the employment of Ionic half-columns, the capitals of which have no volutes, and are crowned with a plain square abacus. This Hellenistic structure thus shows a mixture of Doric with Ionic elements, similar to that suggested by Mr. Cavvadias for the Heræum at Samos. On the hill at the side of the theatre the remains of a peculiar circular building have been uncovered. The building was about fifty feet in diameter, and in one side of it is a rectangular vaulted chamber, about twenty by fifteen feet in size, at one end of which are five rectangular niches, with their short ends toward the entrance. These were no doubt intended to receive corpses. A large rectangular hole in the middle of the chamber, covered with a slab of stone, is explained as a receptacle for bones removed from the niches. At the sides and in front of the circular building were porticos with columns. The whole structure, which belongs to the Hellenistic period, must have been an imposing monument. The circular building must have been considerably higher than the porticos, and probably ended in a conical roof. Work is now going on at the Lion's harbor and at a large Roman bath.

The temple of Didymæan Apollo, about fifteen miles from Miletus, was one of the largest and most splendid temples of the Greek world. The building, remains of which are still standing, was begun apparently in the fourth century B. C., but the work was still going on 200 years later, and the structure was never completed. Two finished Ionic columns still support a fragment of the richly decorated architrave, and a third column, unfluted, stands at the other side of the temple. The eastern front of the temple has been laid bare by French excavators, and shows an interesting arrangement of its ten columns with rich and varied bases, disposed to correspond in pairs. The wide flight of steps leading to the entrance is flanked by projecting rectangular pedestals, evidently intended to support statues or something of the sort. At the north side parts of several columns are still in place. These are unfluted, but on one at least the position of the flutings is marked by incised lines. The ruins are situated in the midst of the village of Ierondá, some three miles from the sea, and some of the column drums at the west end of the temple are built into the walls of houses. Above the pronaos stands a windmill, which has been sold to Dr. Wiegand. It is therefore to be expected that the site will soon be excavated by the Germans, when all that remains of this magnificent temple will be made known.

Since 1900, excavations have been carried on at Pergamon by the German Archæological Institute, under the direction of Professor Dörpfeld, with the purpose of laying bare the remains of the entire city, so far as possible. Last year the great gymnasium, or rather gymnasia, on three terraces connected by stairways in vaulted passages, were excavated. The work of this season is not yet begun. Even now Pergamon is perhaps the most interesting Greek site in Asia Minor, and, with the progress of the excavations, its importance is sure to grow. The magnificent sculptures from the great altar and the other buildings on and near the top of the hill are in Berlin, but the remains of the buildings of the city cannot well be removed, and will, when completely excavated, offer, in their unrivalled natural setting, a most superb example of a great and rich ancient city.

H. N. F.

Correspondence.

THE FRENCH SHORE QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is great rejoicing in our oldest colony to-day over the final settlement of this most irritating question, the most dangerous dispute, as Sir Charles Dilke declares, between England and France. For the past fourteen years our people on the treaty shore—British subjects living upon British territory—have suffered privations, annoyance, and a burden so intolerable that, were it not for the evidence contained in the report of the royal commission on the subject, the facts could not be credited. This able and impartial setting forth of the wrongs and indignities suffered by the Newfoundland people on the so-called French shore was kept secret in order not to wound the susceptibilities of our opponents. It gives a graphic description of English men-of-war's men, at the bidding of French officers, raiding poor settlers' houses, seizing their lobster boilers, and carrying them off in triumph for the sole crime that they had dared to fish in the open sea off their own shores.

For nearly a fortnight Sir R. Bond, the Newfoundland premier, has been negotiating with the Home Government, and the final outcome is an agreement which satisfies the whole colony with the exception of a few political opponents whose aim and object, hardly concealed, is to make political capital out of the alleged defects in the new convention for the coming general election in November next. As Sir Robert has an overwhelming majority in both branches of the Legislature, the ratification of the treaty by Parliament is a foregone conclusion. The premier deserves every credit for the firm and very efficient handling of the subject. The French, as we know to our sorrow, are terribly difficult people to deal with—like the Americans in similar fishery disputes.

In England all political parties rejoice over the settlement with France. Rosebery and John Morley are just as enthusiastic over the treaty as Chamberlain, Balfour, Lyttelton, and Lansdowne. The only apparently dissatisfied parties are the New England fisherman and the Newfoundland Opposition. Gloucester looked forward to the annulling of the Bait act, when she could coöperate with the French in obtaining a supply, and thus become free from the onerous and expensive Newfoundland regulations. She is bitterly disappointed at the result of the negotiations.

The main fight has been over the bait supply for the deep-sea fishery. Over and over again the local Government has been offered a total and complete surrender of the treaty coast in return for a free supply of bait. They have, however, remained firm. The Bait act still remains in force, and no fresh privileges are granted to them under the new arrangement. In addition to what has been published, there is a most important addition providing for an English consul at St. Pierre. This will put an end to the very extensive smuggling carried on for over a century. Every country but England was represented in the little island. The refusal to allow us a consul was a most unfriendly proceeding, but no diplomatic effort up to the present

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had been able to obtain this most desired boon. St. Pierre lived by contraband; the consul meant its ruin; hence the resistance.

So old is this dispute that the treaty of Utrecht (1713) is only a modern incident in the course of its long career. It commences with the Armada year. After the annihilation of Spain's sea-power, France and England, who had both plundered her galleons, met face to face in the long fight for the dominion of the sea and empire in North America, which ended with Trafalgar and the surrender of Quebec. The rocky islets of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and these rights in Newfoundland, are all that remain to France after that mighty struggle.

A combination of events has brought about the present happy consummation. The King's tact and his great popularity have been one moving cause, but the most powerful levers have been the vanishing codfish and the disappearing lobster. The French fishery has been a poor, decaying business, and every year it has been getting worse. Where they used to have fifty establishments and 1,500 men on the northeast coast, in 1903 they had one ship and sixty men. Bonuses have been piled up, but the industry, in face of a falling catch, could not be sustained. A fishery carried on 2,000 miles from its base could never compete with a similar industry managed by settlers who have the cod and lobster and herring almost at their door. Worse, again, the French arrive only in June and leave in October. It is in May and October, when they are away, that the Newfoundlanders make the best hauls.

To understand the full effect of the Newfoundland part of the convention we must examine it a little more in detail. By the first article all the treaties under which France claimed exclusive fishing privileges in Newfoundland are swept away. The so-called French Shore becomes again English territory, entirely governed by English laws. This is the main point in the convention; all the rest is either leather or prunella. Article II. is all a pure diplomatic fiction inserted by the French negotiators "to save face," as the Chinese say, and to make the nation believe that there had been only a mere nominal surrender of a small share of their privileges, and that really valuable French fishery rights were still retained on the Treaty shore. The whole thing is a pure, unmitigated fraud. Observe Article III. and the elaborate arrangements for compensation. The traders will not only claim under this clause compensation for their old buildings and the good will and future profits of their business, but also damages for the dismissal of their old servants. I went over them all carefully, and my valuation would not represent a twentieth part of what is now claimed. Every solitary Frenchman on the shore is going to set up a claim, and we may be sure that they will be well paid. Selling out in this way means their complete exodus from the coast. They will depart, like the Israelites from Egypt, with their spoils. Does any one for a moment suppose that they will return to pay taxes and rents, and compete with the active and hardy natives on the shore? If they failed with exclusive rights and no duties and every advantage in their favor, will they have a chance to prosper now with everything against them and all the best fishing places sold to Englishmen? Not a solitary Gaul will come back, except it may be an odd Pierrois trading schooner to sell a few goods and smuggle some of their villanous German gin.

The departure of the French and the abrogation of the treaties will benefit the fishermen; but still greater benefits will result from the inflow of foreign capital, long scared away by these troublesome French claims. The west coast contains the very finest coast scenery in North America; its beautiful salmon rivers, its deer forests, are every year attracting a great company of tourists and sportsmen. Coal, copper, iron, and slate are abundant, and operations have commenced for their development. This will give all these industries a tremendous impetus.

D. W. PROWSE.

St. Johns, Newfoundland, April 22, 1904.

THE GERMAN WOMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is fine when a German man (as happened recently in your columns) defends his fellow countrywomen against the charge of stolidity, but is the charge really ill-founded? To one who has known many German women of the utmost culture and charm, it would be pleasant to believe it, but general statements must be based upon the large average of the population. Things are changing with extreme rapidity in Germany—already the presence of women in the great universities (even in Berlin) no longer attracts attention; and the nation is admittedly so terribly *gründlich* that when once the idea of the intellectualization of women is thoroughly started, it is safe to predict that it will go far. But the situation at present? These are the words of Dr. Emil Reich in the *Fortnightly Review* for April:

"The German woman has not been nearly so active in the making of her country's history as has the woman of France. Her rôle is not nearly so important in public life, although . . . she is not in her youth cloistered and cooped up with the severity enforced upon the French girl. . . . After marriage, the German woman as a rule relapses into almost entire obscurity; the cares of her household absorb her thoroughly, and she becomes the *Hausfrau*, whose stolid dulness has become almost proverbial throughout Europe, and it must be admitted that this reputation is not quite unmerited."

Dr. Reich (in his admirable article on the "Future of Germany") does not see much hope for betterment, but in this he is surely too pessimistic. He says, after speaking of the great qualities of the Germans in intellectual pursuits:

"On the other hand, it is difficult to believe, judging from the past, that the Germans will ever be able to mature that ideal development of both man and woman which alone can be considered as the palm and prize of the highest form of civilization. . . . Germany runs the danger of quickening but little the onward march of women towards the ideal."

Christine Ladd Franklin.

Memphis, April 25, 1904.

THE NATIONAL EDITION OF WEBSTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: During 1903 Little, Brown & Co. published the National Edition of the Writings of Daniel Webster in eighteen volumes. Those libraries and individuals that already own the regular edition of Webster in six volumes, and Private Correspondence in two volumes, both sets published by the same house, will be interested to know just how much new material they are getting for an investment of $90 in the new National Edition.

The six volumes in the regular edition have been inflated into twelve in the National, and the only new features are a dozen or two excellent pictures and facsimiles, an added chapter, 18 pages, in the Memoir, and the notes to Webster's "7th of March" speech. Volumes 17 and 18 are identical with the Private Correspondence, except that a few pages of unimportant appendix have been added. The new material, then, occurs in volumes 13 to 16 only, in a quantity equal to about two substantial octavo volumes, and consisting mainly of a miscellaneous collection of Webster's letters and addresses, hitherto uncollected and some of which have hitherto not been printed.

The worst feature of the National Edition is that there is no general index to the set—an inexcusable omission. Instead, there are three indexes, one in volume 12, one in volume 16, and one in volume 18—the latter, by the way, being followed by forty pages of printed matter, instead of being, as it should be, the last thing in the volume; and the items in the indexes in volumes 16 and 18 do not refer to volume numbers which are found on the backs of the set, but to certain sub-series of volumes not readily indicated.

For an investment of $90, then, one gets four volumes, which might have been put into two, of material not already available at moderate prices, and a set of 18 volumes, inadequately indexed.

Yours very truly,

J. L. Wyer, Jr., Librarian.

University, Lincoln, Neb., April 27, 1904.

Notes.

Professor Saintsbury is to preside over a selection from the chief works of the minor poets of the Caroline period, in two volumes, to be issued by the Clarendon Press.

McClure, Phillips & Co. have nearly ready 'Human Work,' by Mrs. Charlotte Perkins Gilman.

Harper & Bros. are bringing out 'The Fall of Feudalism in Ireland,' by Michael Davitt, and 'Success among Nations,' by Emil Reich.

Maurice Hewlett's novel, 'The Queen's Quair,' is to be published directly by Macmillan Co., and his book on Tuscany, with illustrations by Joseph Pennell, in the early fall.

Maxfield Parrish proved himself the right man in the right place when illustrating Kenneth Grahame's 'Dream Days' (John Lane), and he has now rendered a like service to the same publisher and author and to the public in the case of 'The Golden Age.' Mr. Parrish's classic manner fits the style and matter of these books admirably; is highly decorative and, even in its humor, always in keeping—as John Tenniel betwixt *Punch* and 'Alice in Wonderland.' The typography has a liberal elegance.

A wordy and non-committal introduction is supplied by Senator Lodge to a volume

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of 'Addresses and Presidential Messages of Theodore Roosevelt, 1902-1904,' just issued in a duodecimo volume of nearly five hundred pages by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The President, "a man of the highest education," is held up for entire sincerity of speech, truthfulness, courage, and apostolic exhortation "to awake to righteousness and sin not." Mr. Lodge elaborately contrasts this sort of campaign document with "the formal political or campaign biography so much in favor in former days," but now "very much out of fashion." However, unless "formal" is insisted upon, Leupp's 'The Man Roosevelt' and Riis's 'Roosevelt the Citizen' would seem to keep the tradition tolerably alive.

Like its predecessor in the series of translations of historical documents entitled "The Philippine Islands, 1493-1898" (Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.), volume xi. is made up almost exclusively of transcripts from the original documents in the Spanish archives at Seville. Concluding the year 1599, it presents the ordinances adopted by the Audiencia at Manila, the majority of them pertaining to details of administration. Three ordinances enjoining respect for native customs and prescribing an abbreviated procedure for cases in court to which natives are parties, are of interest; so also are the ordinances for punishing offences committed by the Chinese—their most gross immorality to be requited by burning alive. It is stated that the Chinese who become converts to Christianity thereupon become slothful. Most of the contents of volume xi. centre, however, in one way or another, about the repulse (though not with entire success) of Dutch privateers at the mouth of Manila Bay in 1600. Auditor Morga, who had charge of the defence, is charged with incompetence, and for two years the factional fights of what are evidently two parties of office-holders in the islands are waged in the courts at Manila and before the King in his Council of the Indies. A new Governor-General, Pedro de Acuña, takes charge in 1602, under strict orders from Philip III. (as usual, in such cases) to refrain from nepotism and correct all evils of favoritism. There is also an interesting letter from the Jesuit, Father Vaez, covering the doings of his order in the Philippine Islands in 1601. This sort of material speedily multiplies from now on in Philippine history, and the proper selection of it will demand wary walking on the part of the editors. They have illustrated the Vaez letter with facsimiles of the first two books which reproduced it, an Italian work brought out at Milan in 1603, and a publication of Jesuit letters in Latin at Antwerp in 1605.

Mary E. Burt's title, 'Poems that Every Child Should Know,' and sub-title, "A Selection of the Best Poems of All Times for Young People" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), are directly challengeable. The proposition in the preface that "there is a *duty* in the matter of learning poetry" cannot bring Jeremiah Eames Rankin's "The Babie," for instance, into the category of "poems that every child should know"; nor is this, in turn, nor Knox's "Mortality," nor Moore's "The Light of Other Days," nor Arnold's "The Forsaken Merman," nor Kipling's "True Royalty," nor Mrs. Hemans's "The Voice of Spring," nor Chambers's "The Recruit," nor Payne's "Home, Sweet Home," nor Lanier's "Barnacles," nor many another here bound up, among the best poems of all time. Some examples are no more than doggerel. Why not be content to make a plain offering of a new anthology for the young, and to suppress extravagant pretensions? The present selection implies a large latitude for what is childish or even youthful.

The key to the mystical poetry of Mr. Yeats, with its wavering rhythms and ideas that too often, for all their beauty, are the confused utterance of a dream-burdened mind, should be sought first of all in his own critical Essays, or in Mr. Arthur Symons's 'The Symbolist Movement in Literature.' But of the number who heard Mr. Yeats lecture during his recent American tour there must be many who would find his 'Ideas of Good and Evil' too vague and indefinite an introduction to the symbolism which makes so many of his poems read like riddles. For such a reader Mr. Horatio Sheafe Krans designed his 'William Butler Yeats and the Irish Literary Revival' (McClure, Phillips & Co.), a clearly written, matter-of-fact little handbook which reviews all of Mr. Yeats's prose, poetry, and plays, and explains briefly the poet's aims, and his place in the Gaelic revival, which has already achieved so much in Ireland. Mr. Krans is himself no mystic. He is intelligent enough to appreciate the æsthetic value of symbolism employed as Shakspere employed it, to give a touch of "natural magic"; and he realizes that to sow one's symbols "with the whole sack," as Mr. Yeats frequently does, is to be more profound than intelligible. His book, therefore, is a fairly safe guide for one embarking on a course of Mr. Yeats, and it is full of well-chosen quotations from the poems that have been inspired in the last decade by the return to imagination which is the aim of the Irish poet and his friends.

It is a poor soul indeed that, having seen Switzerland, does not love her. It is a poorer soul that allows itself to be jealous of her other lovers, even when they vaunt their love in public. Yet it is but human to challenge within one's own breast their right to proclaim their passion so boldly, unless they can by some special charm of manner or newness of praise prove their devotion more appreciative than that which has previously been uttered or is still silently cherished. Canon Rawnsley has selected a dulcet title for his travel-sketches, 'Flower-Time in the Oberland' (Glasgow: MacLehose), and writes in his wonted style of easy, personal narrative. Yet it may be questioned whether he has entirely justified his title or his publication. His account is not innocent of flowers, but they give no especial tone to the book, which might about as well have been written in June or July as in May. The aspects and experiences which the author dwells upon are of familiar places and familiar types. Yet the book furnishes pleasant reading. The last third of it is devoted to Lucerne, and in this portion is reprinted an interesting account, that had been previously published, of the revival of older styles of house-decoration in that hospitable city. A few misprints need correction. They are chiefly in German words. Probably among them is to be reckoned "wonderschon" (p. 124). It appears to us hardly likely that the transports of either enthusiasm or dialect can account for that form, despite the author's asseveration that his German companion uttered it repeatedly. And it is curious to find an English Churchman writing of experiences in Lucerne in 1903, and setting down the English Church in that city as in the Weggisgasse (p. 294). Can it be that the good Canon goes a-Maying on Sunday when away from home? St. Mark's is a pretty granite structure in the Haldenstrasse, far to the eastward, and was built in 1898-99.

'Pompeii,' translated from the German of R. Engelmann (Scribners), is the first of a new series called "Famous Art Cities," projected by the house of Seemann at Leipzig. It is a large octavo of 112 pages, in flexible covers, easy to stow away in one's handbag; and it gives in small compass a good account of the things most worth seeing in the resurrected town. The 144 illustrations, very well executed and chiefly from photographs, make it a useful appendix to the ordinary guidebook. It may safely be recommended for its accuracy, not only to travellers, but to all who wish to get some idea of Pompeii without leaving their firesides at home.

'Lyra Germanica-Latina' is the title of a little book in which Mr. Waldemar Kloss of Belleville, Ill., has gathered his own translations in rhymed Latin verses of some forty familiar German folk and student songs (St. Louis: Office of the *Amerika*). The verses are intended to be in the metres of the originals so that they may be sung to the well-known tunes, and in general they do indeed fit pretty well. But the "Einst hat mir mein Leibarzt geboten" becomes iambic from anapæstic, and the version of "Wohlauf noch getrunken" not only is not in the metre of the original, but seems to be in no metre at all. However, it matters little, for the good old days are gone when students were wont to sing in Latin over their beer, and in this country only the surviving relics of the past can join in the words of even "Lauriger Horatius" or "Gaudeamus." This new *Lyra* will, we fear, be struck by few save the bard and his immediate friends.

Those who care to know everything that is known and, up to the present date, knowable of that both simple and mysterious *cause célèbre*, the Dreyfus case, will find it summed up in a clear, concise, and very complete little book that an anonymous writer has just published under the title: 'Histoire Sommaire de l'Affaire Dreyfus' (Paris: Georges Bellais). The author has followed Joseph Reinach's big history, of which four volumes are already finished, than which there is no more exhaustive and, on the whole, more trustworthy authority on the matter, if we except a few questionable interpretations of the remaining litigious points. As to these the present author has not committed himself. In 186 pages he has condensed all the essential and now generally accepted facts in the case from the discovery of the *bordereau* in September, 1894, down to the latest verdict of the Court of Cassation (March 5, 1904) granting the request for a revision. He dispenses the reader from perusing the twelve volumes of judicial proceedings and the countless volumes of Dreyfus literature. The substance of them all is here, including the latest discoveries made since the Rennes sentence, showing that documents had been falsified

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and antedated to be used against the innocent man in the second trial. The chronology and bibliography that accompany this brief history, its judicious comments on the moral and political repercussions of the case, its general tone of moderation and fairness, go to make an invaluable handbook for those who wish to talk sanely about a subject that, more than any other, has evoked on all sides a great deal of passion and nonsense.

The complexity of the glacial record in the Northern States is hardly more astonishing than the success with which it has been deciphered. A second monograph, by Frank Leverett, treating the 'Glacial Formations and Drainage Features of the Erie and Ohio Basins' (Monograph XLI., U. S. Geology Survey), makes a fitting sequel to an earlier volume by the same author, on 'The Illinois Glacial Lobe,' and sets forth in the clearest fashion an extraordinary body of well-observed facts on which the glacial theory now stands so firmly established. Among a multitude of interesting features, mention may be directed to two of special significance; one is the graceful looping of the terminal moraines on the southern border of the Erie Glacial Lobe—they may indeed be described as festooned between Bellefontaine and Mansfield. The other is the channel by which the glacial lake of northern Ohio came to be drained across southern Michigan. Both of these features had previously been discovered and described; they are here set forth in relation to the whole history in which they are but incidents. It is unfortunate that we have no popular book in which an adequate account of the glacial period in the upper Ohio and Mississippi valleys is available for the general reader.

The geographical pivot of history is the subject of a stimulating paper by H. J. Mackinder in the *Geographical Journal* for April. It is an attempt to exhibit human history as part of the life of the world organism by showing how the successive invasions of the Asiatic nomads from the steppe-land (the pivot) moulded the settled peoples of Europe. In some measure the strategic advantages of these nomads has been neutralized by the development of mobility upon the ocean. But the steppe-land is about to be covered with a network of railways giving a mobility of military and economic power greater than that of the sea, so that it will continue to be the pivot region of the world's politics. In the discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Royal Geographical Society, one speaker suggested that when the air becomes a means of locomotion, a great deal of this geographical distribution must lose its importance, and the successful powers will be those which have the greatest industrial basis. Other articles are upon Mantchuria and Korea, recent Russian travel and research in Asia, and the fresh-water lochs of Scotland.

The National Ethnographic Museum of Leyden, one of the first in Europe and the oldest in the Occident, has been for the past ten years under the direction of Dr. J. E. Schmeltz, who sends forth his annual report for 1903, showing constant communication with the Far Eastern nations and the people of Insulinde, as the Dutch writers call the Dutch East Indies, or Island India. The additions to the library reveal especial richness in those works which can be bought not on the counters of the average, or even special, bookshop, but may be obtained only by careful scrutiny and the application of time and wit, being often scholarly work of the highest order, but done by men whose publishers are obscure and whose income is apt to be a minus quantity. The chapter on the use made of the Museum shows that specialists, both natives of Japan and of Western countries, make frequent and particular use of the Japanese collection, more than of any other, since they know well the riches of this famous institution. The eight plates decidedly enrich the text, being devoted especially to the art of the nations of continental and insular Asia.

In the budget of the Secretary for Finances in Egypt, interesting details for the erection of the railroad from Berber on the Nile to Suakin on the Red Sea are given. The preliminary surveys and estimates have already been made, and now the moneys have been appropriated—in all, 1,770,000 Egyptian pounds. Work will be begun at once, and it is expected that in three years the road can be opened to traffic—a great event, for economic and political reasons.

According to the official reports for the semester recently closed, there were in attendance at the twenty-one universities of Germany 1,477 women, of whom only 54 were matriculated—namely, 28 in Heidelberg and 26 in Freiburg—as the privileges of matriculation in the three Bavarian universities of Munich, Erlangen, and Würzburg begins only with the present semester. The women contingent may have been even a little larger, as two of these institutions, Münster and Greifswald, do not distinguish between "Hoerer" und "Hoererinnen." Notwithstanding the rigid conditions prevailing in Berlin, the number of women in attendance there is practically as great as ever, having been 562. The reports of the other schools are as follows: Munich, 22; Leipzig, 62; Bonn, 89; Breslau, 98; Halle, 51; Göttingen, 58; Tübingen, 3; Heidelberg, 53 (not matriculated); Strassburg, 103; Freiburg, 85 (not matriculated); Würzburg, 75; Marburg, 18; Giessen, 11; Erlangen, 10; Königsberg, 67; Jena, 50; Kiel, 20; Rostock, 6.

The new 'Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ,' which is being published by the joint Academies of Sciences in Germany, and of which eleven parts, covering the greater portion of the letter A, have appeared, is having a very encouraging sale. The Cologne *Gazette* reports that there are more than 1,500 subscribers, an exceptionally large number of copies going to foreign parts, especially to North America. This success is very gratifying to the German Academies, whose finances were being severely taxed by the expenses of this immense undertaking. It is announced that completion cannot be expected short of twelve years.

—The instalment of letters from John Ruskin to Charles Eliot Norton easily takes the lead in interest among the contents of the May *Atlantic*. The long and intimate friendship between the two men, beginning in 1855 and continuing until death intervened, gave to Professor Norton a rare opportunity of forming an adequate appreciation of Ruskin's life and character. We have in the present number a brief but effective sketch of the home life, in which the ruling influence was the mother, "a personage who seemed rather a contemporary of Miss Austen's characters than of the actual generation." Though Ruskin was then thirty-six years of age, her attitude towards him was that of the watchful mother of a child not yet arrived at the years of discretion, though escaped from her control in matters outside of an immediate personal relation. The father had the air of a cultured English gentleman rather than a man of business, was an agreeable host, considerate in manner, well acquainted with the masters of English literature, and possessed of an unusual interest and taste in matters pertaining to the arts. Ruskin's own statements as to the serious deficiencies of his home life in developing the powers of independent judgment and self-control are strongly corroborated by Professor Norton's recollections. Ruskin's first acquaintance with Lowell's poetry came through a volume handed to him by Professor Norton at Geneva, in 1856, and a warm note of appreciation was returned on the following day. His delight in the spirit and fervor of the 'Fable for Critics' should be suggestive reading to the modern Harvard historian of our literature, who found himself unable to imagine how any one could find interest enough in that poem to give it the brief time necessary for its perusal. As to the other poems, "it is very interesting to see the stern seriousness of a man so little soured—so fresh and young at heart." Mr. Norton found in Ruskin a delightful personality, unpretentious, gentle, and considerate of the feelings of others, and entirely free, in his talk, from the air of dogmatism and arbitrary assertion often noticed in his writings.

—Col. Higginson's paper is devoted to the negro problem, the main thesis being simply that the negro is intensely human, and must be dealt with as a human being. The insistent idea that the former slaveholders are the only persons who have ever really understood the negro, is summarily and effectually dealt with. Many of the anti-slavery leaders had had ample experience to study slavery at first hand, and were in better position to forecast what the blacks might become under freedom than were their owners. Mr. Higginson deals forcibly, too, with the claim that lynching is done in defence of chastity. Let the color of the respective parties in any case of assault be reversed, and the alleged ungovernable regard for chastity evaporates at once, showing conclusively that caste, and not chastity, is at the root of the matter. Frederick J. Turner begins a series of papers on the diplomatic contest for the Mississippi Valley, with an ominous reference to our nation's progress towards the fulfilment of "its destiny on the Pacific *and in South America.*" The editor lightens a number unusually full of matter for serious thought with a half-dozen pages on "Fishing with a Worm." Stephen Gwynn's recent book holds that the worm fisherman is *capable de tout*, because a wretch who came under his own observation caught a trout on a worm, and proceeded to kill it by biting through its head with his teeth; but Mr. Perry demonstrates that a man may remain a gentleman and still catch his fish

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with a worm on due occasion, now as in the days of Walton.

—The May *Harper's* opens with Abbey's illustrations of "Hamlet." The accompanying critical comment, by Theodore Watts-Dunton, is largely an assault on the alleged wrongheadedness of German Shaksperian criticism. The Germans will insist upon putting Shakspere in with the "tribe of Ben," who work their imaginations along carefully studied lines of logical consistency, not with "the tribe of Nature's children," whose imaginations work them, and who are therefore as shaky in their logic as Nature herself. Regardless of the fact that scarcely one of Shakspere's plots was even partially invented by himself, the Germans go on writing long treatises upon the profound philosophical and allegorical intent of these plots. But Shakspere did not write plays, we are told, in order to find an outlet for his own thoughts and emotions. The dramatic instinct has no great need of expression except some need which impinges upon it from the outside, and that in Shakspere's case was the need of bread and butter. Hence he was forced to harness his genius to business, and he "harnessed it far too thoroughly to dream of producing plays for the purpose of expressing that great inner life of his which circumstance and temperament had been building up." The Globe Theatre, wanting a Hamlet, tapped the Shaksperian tree and furnished the channel wherein should flow the poetic "gum, which oozes from whence 'tis nourished." It may be asked here whether a dramatist who had thus thoroughly harnessed his genius to the business of getting a living out of the demands of the Globe Theatre, could correctly be said to be worked by his imagination, and not to be working it; but it would be cruel to deny to Mr. Watts-Dunton himself a strain of that shaky logic to which he assigns so high a place in Nature and Nature's children. An interesting idea offered in conclusion is that Shakspere was so full of Hamlet that "Hamlet thoughts," of the general character of the famous soliloquy, overflowed from the full mould into many of his other productions, notably "Macbeth," regardless often of the character of the men who were thus forcibly drafted into the service of giving them utterance.

—The May *Century* opens with a paper by Henry Norman on the "Mother of Parliaments," dealing not so much, however, with her essential characteristics as a mother as with the various whims and crotchets which the old lady has developed during her prolonged career. Mr. Norman expresses his confident anticipation of the erection of a parliament at Dublin for Irish affairs, and of the abolition of gratuitous service in Parliament. A very interesting paper deals with the "Lost Art of the Daguerreotype." The writer is Abraham Bogardus, one of the successful devotees of the art a half century ago, at the height of its development. Among the illustrations, all from daguerreotypes, of course, are portraits of Daguerre himself, Joseph H. Choate at the time of his graduation from Harvard, Edward Noyes Westcott in childhood, Mary Mapes Dodge, and Edmund Clarence Stedman. Under the caption "History by Camera," George F. Parker gives an account of the Sir John Benjamin Stone collection of photographs to be exhibited at St. Louis in illustration of the history, antiquities, social life, etc., of Great Britain. Korea is discussed by the Rev. Arthur Judson Brown, of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, and Homer B. Hulbert, editor of the *Korea Review*. The former deals mainly with the country's present sad condition, the latter with its future under the one or the other of its would-be masters.

—There is always some fresh way to regard the Yellowstone National Park, and the May *Scribner's* considers it from a scientific point of view of its geyser basins, under the light of a group of color illustrations by Dwight L. Elmendorf. Arnold Hague is the competent writer. Capt. Mahan's fifth paper on the War of 1812 deals with the opening of actual conflict, the privateering operations of the two belligerents, and the actions between the *Wasp* and the *Frolic*, and the *United States* and the *Macedonian*. The "Field of Art" is given up to notes on Whistler, by Kenyon Cox, Frank Fowler, and Harper Pennington. Whistler's doctrines of art, Mr. Cox holds, at least explain the aims and tendencies of his own work, however inadequate they may be when applied outside those limits. Trying purposely to dissociate himself from representation, "his manner grew ever lighter and slighter, and he reduced art to a hint of composition, a ghost of color, little more than a memory of material—an art of subtleties, of nuances, of infinite refinements." The worst enemy to his art was the author of the 'Gentle Art of Making Enemies,' inasmuch as the writer was so amusing that people thought the painter a humorist too. Mr. Cox's note is quite sympathetic, Mr. Pennington's a warm defence, while Mr. Fowler is not disposed to pass the claims of Whistler's adherents without serious question. The best of the artist's work, he thinks, is precisely that in which there is least of his peculiar characteristics, preeminently his portraits of his Mother and of Thomas Carlyle, "two masterpieces by one who may not perhaps unqualifiedly be named master."

—The roads of the world lie open to the philosophic tramp; even Tibet he may essay if his philosophy be Buddhistic, and if there are any tracks there to speak of. So the roads of Spain stretched north from Algeciras for Mr. Bart Kennedy, and he swung out on the long trail through a land that has known more of the recorded wanderings of genius than perhaps any other. But his is a refreshingly new and different record. From being a sailor with a stokehole experience, an actor in a strolling troop, an engineer of some kind, a voice in Italian opera chorus, a journalist, a tramp at large, he started across Spain, absolutely innocent of Spanish, simply to see and to admire. He had the eyes and had the knack—had luck as well—and so he emerged on the French frontier at Hospitalet in safety, and has given us in his 'Tramp in Spain' (Frederick Warne & Co.) a report the most living and grasping since Miss Bates's 'Spanish Highways.' But this is a very different book, very masculine, full of the comradeship of men, impressionistic, and not *genre* work, but with the same reality and inherent truth. Of literature it takes no account. Not even Don Quixote is mentioned once in it; and Cervantes only to point the terror of the reiteration of his name at Alcala de Henares. The writer's track from Jaen to Toledo took him straight through the country where Sancho Panza had trudged and Dapple trotted, but over that stretch a discreet veil is drawn. Evidently of purpose are we kept facing the people of Spain, by its roadsides and in its taverns. And yet, for all this reality, the smallness and frowziness of ordinary life are not allowed to oppress us. The wind of the road blows clear, and the sun shines, and the rain falls, and the long solitary reaches of the tramper's life give broad views of country and character. As always with the true wanderer on his feet, there went much philosophy to the making of this book—a philosophy cast in somewhat jerky and over-pungent form, but human nevertheless. If Mr. Kennedy will now learn Spanish, tramp through Spain again, and give us a new series of impressions, he will, between the two, have produced a unique thing. As it is, though he has little use for republics—always excepting that of Andorra—and calls this land of liberty "the great sham republic," he has touched the pulse of universal brotherhood and sympathy, and has brought the peoples of the Peninsula more than a step nearer to us.

—Following upon Baldwin's 'Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology' for English-speaking people, and Eisler's for the Germans, there is now appearing for the French a 'Vocabulaire Technique et Critique de la Philosophie' (Paris: Armand Colin), under the charge of MM. Lalande, Couturat, Belot, and Delbos, with the aid of a distinguished corps of assistants. There is a generous scheme of printing by which fascicles are sent out in a preliminary form to a number of persons even outside of France for suggestion and comment; three-fourths of the page being left vacant for this purpose. The plan of this vocabulary does not embrace the encyclopædic feature of Baldwin's Dictionary nor the voluminous quotations from authors of Eisler's. Philosophy proper and the normative sciences constitute its main theme, and psychology and sociology come in only as their terms are of general philosophical import. This difference of emphasis is the cause of a difference of character in the two dictionaries (aside from the great difference in size): the French has almost a leaning to a scholastic quality (it gives, for instance, separate articles to all the moods of the Syllogism), while the English may almost seem to envisage the time when philosophy shall suffer extinction at the hand of psychology. The subject of Symbolic Logic, to which Philosophy has usually been an unfeeling step-mother, is sure to receive a good setting out at the hands of M. Couturat; it is known that he is already engaged in writing an important work on this subject. In general, the definitions have the clearness and precision which are sure to characterize the work of French savants; and the many suggestions in the way of distribution of meanings between loosely synonymous terms, and the exclusion of meanings that tend only to vagueness, are without exception valuable.

—Lord Cromer's annual report on Egypt shows in an unusual degree the good sense, moderation, and ability which have characterized these state papers for the twenty years of his service. The financial prosperity of the country continues, the actual surplus of revenue over expenditures for

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1903 being more than ten million dollars. The amount at the disposal of the Government, however, for the reduction of taxation is less than four million, the remainder being under the control of the representatives of the Powers who signed the London Convention of 1885. This anomalous system of finance is abolished by the recent Anglo-French Agreement, to which there is little doubt the other signatories, Austria, Germany, Italy, and Russia, will give their consent. Equal success has attended the efforts of the Government to maintain in existence a peasant proprietary class and to encourage its growth. The principal measures to this end have been large reductions in the land tax, improved irrigation, the sale of Government land in small lots paid for by annuities, the abolition of octroi duties, the freeing of the navigation of the Nile, the reduction of the railway tariff, but especially the establishment of banks for making loans to small farmers. In the five years of their existence these loans have increased from one hundred thousand dollars to 870 borrowers at the start, to nearly eleven million dollars to eighty thousand of the fellaheen. Referring to the cost, some fourteen million dollars, of the Assuan Dam and Assiut Barrage, Lord Cromer says with this moderate expenditure "more good has been done to the people of Egypt than by the five hundred million dollars of debt which Ismail Pasha contracted and, for the most part, squandered." An evidence of this is the fact that the bad Nile of 1902 caused an increase of only 13 per cent. of imports of cereals, while the increase in 1900, due mainly to the low Nile of the previous year, was 78 per cent. The development of the mineral resources of the country is still in its infancy, but "nearly all the Egyptian territory lying between the Nile and the Red Sea has now been allotted to private syndicates." With regard to the Sudan, Lord Cromer says that the work of civilizing it is "being carried on with zeal, energy, and intelligence." The tranquillity of the people has not been disturbed by the appearance of a new Mahdi nor by the rising of the Mad Mullah in Somaliland. "On the contrary, everywhere there is displayed greater keenness on the part of the people to improve their material position and to occupy themselves in agricultural and commercial pursuits." Among other signs of progress was the erection of 1,000 new water-wheels and the digging of five small flood-canals.

WALDSEEMÜLLER REDIVIVUS.

The Oldest Map with the Name America of the Year 1507, and the Carta Marina of the Year 1516, by M. Waldseemüller (Ilacomylus). Edited by Prof. Jos. Fischer and Prof. Fr. R. v. Wieser. London: Henry Stevens' Son & Stiles. Folio, pp. 55, and 27 plates.

It is comparatively easy, and by no means an uncommon exploit of scholarship, to prove that the world has entirely forgotten the name of one or another of those who deserve to be remembered because of what they accomplished in advancing the common stock of knowledge. It is much more difficult, and a great deal more important, to secure for such a forgotten worthy the widespread recognition which makes the details of what he wrote or did familiar to every well-read person. The name of Martin Waldseemüller has long been known to students of the discovery of America, and it has frequently been explained that the fact that he gave to the New World its name entitles him to an honored position in the popular memory. But the additional explanation had always to be made that he suggested the name under a misapprehension based upon partial information, and the public mind very properly refused to remember him with any especial gratitude. A lucky piece of good fortune, the chance finding of an old volume in the year 1901, renders it necessary to endeavor to change this popular attitude toward the man who christened America. Two maps have come to light which were drawn by Waldseemüller, and which seem to prove that he deserves a position of the highest eminence among geographers. They show him to have been gifted with uncommon keenness in appreciating the relationship between scattered bits of information gathered from chroniclers and travellers, with sound judgment in selecting what was probably true from among the mass of what was merely surmised, and with accurate imagination in reconstructing the outlines of the known world. More than all this, he made an impression upon the knowledge of his contemporaries, who adopted his map as a standard, and used it as a basis upon which to build up the new world-outline made necessary by the reports of the voyagers who completed the work of Columbus and Vasco da Gama.

The Jesuit College at Feldkirch borders the two sides of a mountain torrent which comes down from the Austrian Alps, a few miles south of Lake Constance. Here, while his colleagues carry on their work with the aid of the most modern appliances in the scientific branches, Father Joseph Fischer has for several years been studying the early geographical history of northern Europe, with particular reference to the westward voyages of the Scandinavians. A thorough and well-equipped student, trained by Professor Wieser of Innsbruck, he carried his researches far beyond the limits ordinarily reached, even in European libraries. In his quest for material, he was led to Wolfegg Castle in Würtemberg, which guards the accumulations of many generations of book and picture-loving German lords. Fürst Franz von Waldburg of Wolfegg-Waldsee is the worthy scion of the family, fond of his library with its priceless collection of Dürer's engravings, and equally fond of chatting with his foresters while he takes his beer on the well-worn benches of the village inn, where the tenants are most apt to find him of an evening, ready to give good advice or comforting sympathy in response to their tales of domestic discord or barnyard miscarriage. Near by is the quadrangular castle, with grand old baronial halls and lofty chambers hung with tapestries as fresh and bright as if just received from the Gobelins, serving as background to the well-kept armor of the knights, who also appreciated these things in long-gone centuries.

This was the setting to which Professor Fischer was welcomed in response to his request for permission to search for early maps of Scandinavia. As he looked along the shelves of the castle library, the heavily banded hogskin back of a tall folio volume attracted his attention. Its thick, red-beech sides were covered with leather impressed with early sixteenth-century ornaments, and held closed by solid brass clasps worked in Gothic style. Within, in addition to two single-sheet maps already known to students of cartography, were found the sheets of two large wall maps, each consisting of twelve separate sheets printed from wood blocks, measuring about 24x17 inches, making the map, when mounted, nearly eight feet by four and a quarter. On the inner side of the front cover was the book-plate of Johann Schöner, one of the best-known geographers of the early sixteenth century, containing the proud motto, which now seems to have a curiously prophetic significance:

"Hoc te, posteritas, Schönerus munere donat,
Quo stante, ingenij stant monumenta sui."

Seventy-five years ago, while at work on his 'Examen Critique de l'Histoire de la Géographie du Nouveau Continent,' Alexander von Humboldt made the interesting announcement that the earliest recorded use of the name America was in the year 1507, under circumstances which showed with quite unusual clearness exactly how it came to be selected as a name for the newly discovered region. A group of scholars had been brought together during the first decade of the sixteenth century in the little town of St. Dié, in the Vosges mountains, halfway between Strassburg and Nancy. One of the group, who professed geography, was Martin Waldseemüller, who sometimes gave his name the classical form of Ilacomylus. A number of letters written by him, and by others of the group, have been preserved, which show that about the year 1505 he was busily engaged in the preparation of a number of publications—a new edition of Ptolemy's geography; a globe upon which the portions of the earth made known by the discoveries of the preceding half-century should have their correct relative locations; a large map of sufficient size to give room for representing the details of geographical information regarding the old as well as the new-found world; and a text-book which should explain the meaning of geographical terms and the symbolism of cartography. This text-book was issued from the private press of the St. Dié Academy in the spring of 1507. In it, as Humboldt noticed, occurred the suggestion which was destined so profoundly to affect nomenclature: "alia quarta pars [mundi] per Americum Vesputium . . . inventa est, quam non video cur quis jure vetet ab Americo inventore, sagacis ingenij viro, Amerigen quasi Americi terram, sive Americam, dicendam: cum et Europa et Asia a mulieribus sua sortita sint nomina."

Humboldt also called attention to other extracts from this 'Cosmographiæ Introductio,' which state that the text-book was designed to accompany a map, "tam in solido quam plano depinximus"; which doubtless means that there was a globe as well as a map. The map is described with considerable detail, as having flags or escutcheons to mark the various countries, and crosses where the sea-way was dangerous for shipping, so that its identification, whenever a copy should be seen, was

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comparatively easy. Humboldt was, however, unable to find a map answering the requirements. Ever since his day, speculation has been rife, in the intervals of wondering what had become of Waldseemüller's "America" map, in guessing about its probable geographical character. The most plausible suggestion was that it resembled one of the two maps showing the newly discovered regions, themselves radically different from one another, which were included in the edition of Ptolemy upon which Waldseemüller was at work in 1505, but which was not published until eight years later. The facts that neither of these maps bore the name America, and that one of them (the one with which Waldseemüller is more specifically connected) contained geographical features which became antiquated in the interval between 1505 and 1513, gave rise to additional speculation. The other maps of the second and third decades of that century, which might have shown traces of Waldseemüller's influence, bore such slight relation to the Ptolemy maps of 1513 as to give occasion for the most diverse ideas. It is hard to imagine a greater conglomeration of opinions than existed regarding the probable character of this map prior to Professor Fischer's announcement that he had found a copy of it.

One important result of the reappearance of Waldseemüller's 1507 map is the revelation of the very unsatisfactory condition of current knowledge of historical geography. Professor Fischer's discovery has practically destroyed the value of every opinion previously held in regard to the state of geographical knowledge at the beginning of the sixteenth century. Harrisse's magnificent work in cataloguing the recorded maps, Nordenskiöld's scholarly surveys of early cartographical material, the thorough studies of special subjects by Wieser and Ruge, will always retain their place. No one, however, had been able to appreciate to any exact degree what these maps reveal regarding the extent and the limitations of the information available to the academic investigator in the heart of the Vosges mountains, or to realize that most of the contemporary maps published by the professional geographers were strongly influenced by this single prototype. Professor Fischer has already done much to explain the maps, but he would be the first to recognize that his very careful and scholarly introduction to the facsimiles will be of most use as a basis for further studies of detail. His opinion that the 1507 "America" map is a direct copy from the well-known Canerio chart seems hardly justified, and the evidence which led him to think that Schöner's copy of the 1516 "Carta Marina" consisted of "proof-sheets" is more likely to prove merely that Schöner studied this particular map carefully, pen in hand. Many of the suggestions regarding Waldseemüller's sources, especially for Africa and the further East, need very cautious re-examination. The publication of these maps, of the wholly unsuspected 1516 sea chart quite as much as the long-sought 1507 "America" map, makes it necessary to reconsider the entire question of what European scholars and men of affairs at that time knew about the rapidly extending "known world." These maps show that the assumption that exact information was largely confined to the seafarers and their employers, and to the governmental navigation bureaus—an assumption fully justified by the maps previously known—must be abandoned. The problems connected with the relationship of maps, their parentage and family connections, which Harrisse has done so much to expound, must now be taken up afresh. Closely connected with this is the question of the personal obligation to one another of the men who dealt with scientific geography in the early sixteenth century. Professor Fischer has furnished the clue for the solution of many of these matters, and there is ample justification for the hope that he is the harbinger of a widespread revival of scholarly interest in the whole subject of geographical history.

SIX NOVELS.

The Stolen Emperor. By Mrs. Hugh Fraser. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Story of Susan. By Mrs. Henry Dudeney. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Issues of Life. By Mrs. John Van Vorst. Doubleday, Page & Co.

To Windward. By Henry C. Rowland. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Susannah and One Other. By E. Maria Albanesi. McClure, Phillips & Co.

A Little Tragedy at Tien-Tsin. By Frances Aymar Mathews. Robert Grier Cooke.

When the events warranted in Mrs. Fraser's tale, 'The Stolen Emperor,' took place, the real ruler of Japan was neither a Mikado nor a Shogun, but a great Regent, Hojo Yasutoke. This exalted personage, whose power appears to have been self-constituted and self-sustained, could keep a Shogun in bondage in a remote part of the empire and a Mikado in abject subjection in his own imperial palace of Kioto, but he depended for the safety and continuity of the empire on the fighting daimios, "the men who had withstood the temptation of being drawn into the corrupt and effeminate official life of Kioto, and who, as heads of the provinces they had subdued and the armies that had conquered them, constituted the military as distinguished from the civil or court aristocracy." The Regent's way of perpetuating his own rule was to denounce an emperor as imbecile or incompetent just when he was attaining his majority, banish or kill him, and set up as a figurehead for loyal worship a baby emperor who could not for many years be able to assert any divine authority or even attempt to turn the tables on Yasutoke. This habit of the Regent's was a matter of common gossip in Kioto, and when it was known that a very powerful daimio, Kashima, had been summoned to confer with Yasutoke, it was pretty well understood that the object of the conference was to get Kashima's consent to the deposition of the Emperor, Go-Horikawa, and his recognition of the son of that feeble youth and his consort the Princess Jito Sama, a woman most fair, virtuous, and wise.

The story opens with the coming of Kashima to Kioto, and a fine description of that pomp and splendor with which great feudal barons (perhaps without ironical intention) always emphasized an act of homage to the overlord. In the confefences with Kashima Yasutoke displays less astuteness than might be expected in such a practised negotiator of crime, and never suspects that the daimio's complaisance may conceal a sinister motive. The Regent had the disadvantage of age dealing with youth; he had forgotten to reckon with the dangerous and unruly passion of love. So, while he was congratulating himself on the daimio's easy compliance, Kashima was preparing to carry out the real purpose of his visit to Kioto—nothing less than the abduction of the Empress Jito, whom he had but once seen, then loved forever. The conception of Kashima's scheme is so bold and the subsequent devices for accomplishing his wild will are so simple, impulsive, and unscrupulous, that he may well be the hero of a national legend; and, if the tale is an invention, the character of a mediæval robber baron has been kept close to probability. Kashima is an aristocrat, bold and strong, single of purpose, sudden in action, altogether primitive. In the end he is thwarted and defeated, but not because he has reflected or wavered or felt any sentimental compunction about killing a dozen baby emperors, should they stand between him and his desire. The tale, in itself novel and exciting, is well and sympathetically told, and quite too good to be commended only as a "timely publication."

Mrs. Dudeney's name has hitherto been connected with the presentation if not the solution of disagreeable social problems which, though not new in the history of humanity, have not always been considered desirable or even fit for discussion in fiction. 'The Story of Susan' is distinctly old-fashioned, for the scene is laid in an English village just when the young Princess Victoria had become Queen, and Susan's troubles spring from her adherence to the Church of England and reluctance to accept, along with the love of Martin Heritage, his serious views of life or to conform her conduct and dress to the taste of the elders of the Methodist Chapel. In their day, no doubt, the situation was full of agitating emotion, but the twentieth century looks calmly, a little contemptuously, back upon those conflicts of creeds that provided so much excitement for quiet communities in early Victorian days. In the case under consideration our sympathy is all with Susan, and, if the question of the value of a creed can be settled by observing its effect on character, the Established Church has here everything in its favor. Perhaps these controversies still linger in England, and Mrs. Dudeney may mean to prove conclusively the inefficiency of Nonconformist doctrines and practices to bring about either worldly happiness or spiritual tranquility.

Through all vicissitudes, the contrasting characters of Martin and Susan are well sustained, and the sincerity of their sentiment for each other is never in doubt. The society of Liddleshorn appears to be typical of the period, made up of people with few ideas, some strong convictions, and a gift of quaint, amusing expression. We are reminded of 'Cranford,' but by contrast, for the 'Cranford' people were delightful—a term not applicable to any inhabitant of Liddleshorn (except Susan) introduced by Mrs. Dudeney.

Mrs. Van Vorst's book is sub-entitled "A Novel of the American Woman of To-day." The great difficulty confronting the writer of a novel relating to a class is to avoid

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the appearance of indicting a whole people. We have high authority for saying that this cannot be done. Its counterfeit presentment, in a novel with a purpose, can, more's the pity; to the detriment of perspective, proportion, and the novel. Mrs. Van Vorst's story arraigns the club-woman. The book reviewer may not decide on the usefulness of the institution in question or the desirability of the attack, but is within a reviewer's rights in remarking that Madeleine Dillon, in coming from her country home to New York, had an unfortunate experience in the club which she joined. It was a small, select Lunch Club, which is seen at the outset discussing with harmless irrelevancy and entire inanity a book studied for the occasion. At the end of the few months of Madeleine's sojourn in the city we find one member dead by suicide because she could neither marry nor renounce a married man; one suffering the loss of her only child because a too rigidly scientific bringing-up had depleted him to the point when he could not endure an operation for appendicitis. One has become a hopeless invalid through destroying her unborn child; one has equally become an invalid through shock at having wilfully speeded her automobile, injured the chauffeur, and killed her seatmate; one, a man-hater, is sentimentally nursing the chauffeur; one has obtained a first divorce and is on the high road to a second. Of all the club members there is but one without theories—theories embracing any eccentricity, from views on sterilized milk to plurality of husbands; and even she is the proud possessor of "a first unfortunate marriage which ended in divorce." Madeleine Dillon came, saw, was tempted, and overcame. She gathered up her bairns and returned with her husband to Pennsylvania, where they lived a life of happiness, feeding the children on cow's milk.

If this contention against clubs proves anything, it proves too much for human credulity. Its logic is like that of the spitter in a public conveyance who from his pool of tobacco roared to a remonstrant woman, "You'd ought to be at home washing your husband's dishes, that's where you'd ought to be." It is neither for nor against Mrs. Van Vorst's doctrine that the critic breaks silence. It is to point out that the voice of warning speaks most clearly in other form than that of fiction unless the writer have an exceptional gift for story-telling, added to a burning sense of purpose. In Mrs. Van Vorst's case, and in view of her earlier book of experiences as a factory-worker, it must be said that her facts preach better than her fiction. In showing forth certain feminine tendencies of the day she reduces them to a pulp of absurdity; nor is her own work free from a taint of the modernity that she deplores—a rending of the veil from life's mysteries in unsuitable places. Pathology to-day is in the parlor, psychics on the highway, reserves nowhere. As a novel, 'The Issues of Life' is amateurish, stiff, thin, full of puppets. As a plea against the new woman with her clubs, her views, her hobbies, her many husbands, her few children, it is overloaded by its own bias. None but a George Eliot could have made a successful story out of such didactic material. Can we imagine a George Eliot writing a story on these themes?

'To Windward' is crudely constructed too, and flounders about in a sea of unrelated, magnified, and non-natural incidents. And yet bracing salt breezes blow through one-half the book, and the other half is largely given to the always fascinating heroisms flourishing in a great city hospital. The author writes of seamanship like a seaman, of hospitals like a surgeon, of both with naturalness and fluency. It is in weaving the well-twisted threads into a fabric that his weakness is disclosed. No weakness, but a mighty pungency, characterizes the dialects of the deck and the sick ward. As good as a bucket of salt water over the head are Amos's exhortations to his unruly crew in words which can be described only as "langwidge." As a specimen may be quoted: *"B'low there!* Break out!! Up ye come—all hands!! I'll get down there among ye, and make ye think ye're back on a lime-juicin' wind-jammer, ye grimy sweeps!!!" No less forcible is the language of the doctor on shore when occasion requires, revealing a vocabulary which, with a robust realism, constitutes the author's strongest points. In his efforts to link his stories into a story he is less happy. As to characterization, his hero and the hero's patron, a gruff old surgeon, are not more overdone in faults and perfections than many other gentry of fiction, while several of the minor persons, who are hardly more than "single-speech" characters, are creditably life-like. But the women are less so, and the villain limps audibly as he passes from iniquity to iniquity.

'Susannah and One Other' opens in a refreshingly old-school atmosphere. There is a nice little child and a charming Aunt Sue, the heroine, who sings "Sally in our Alley" and "Believe me if all those endearing young charms." Love is the chief interest, lying the chief stumbling-block. The troubled soul rests for a season in the enjoyment of a thoroughly old-fashioned novel. Unfortunately, the end does not quite uphold the beginning. This is not because Brahms and the telephone creep into the Paradise; true, we were content without them, but they do not tarry. Rather is it that towards the last the construction sags. It is perhaps not more incident that one craves, but more relevancy of incident; more untying instead of mere lapsing of difficulties. The improbability of the leading complication—an engagement foisted on a man and a girl who have never met—is made agreeable if not plausible by the naïve and unsensational telling, while the development and progress of the story, though more probable, take less hold on conviction because of the slump in their gait. For three-quarters of the way it is a pretty tale, with the good old home comforts of English farm country, English house parties, love-making and fine-lady manœuvring. Who could help enjoying a certain garden of which it is said, "it had the look of being loved"? If in its last quarter the luminary wanes, at least it sets in peace—the peace that only an English country novel affords.

Frances Aymar Mathews's stories are singularly unequal. The Chinese ones have excellent points. Indeed, the first of them, 'The Little Tragedy of Tien-Tsin,' is a masterly compound of idyl and tragedy. The author writes with evident knowledge of the Chinese, and with sympathy all the more real because not blind. Her pictures of the women are especially engaging. That she understands the feminine Caucasian as well, appears in the description of an old English woman whose face was a "map of wrinkles." "It was the face of a woman, however; of that woman who is as old as Eve, and who will be with us until sex is no more; the woman whose life is summed up in the one word—anxiety." But the white stories as a whole halt—if not throughout, then in some important point; so that, in spite of much cleverness in conception and writing, a feeling of disappointment often attends the close. In one the disappointment arises from the absurdly affected language of a last-century masquerade. In another the legend of the Wandering Jew appears in a shape of banality. In a third, when a sister rescues an imbecile brother from drowning, she is made to survive, only to perish later in trying to save the same brother from fire—a survival that is fatal within the scope of the short story; in the union of flood to flame lies not strength, but weakness. The two Canadian stories are well done; preferable to the tragic one we find the comical adventure of the fifteen donkeys. The fantasy that shows us Shakspere making love to Amy Robsart's daughter at Kenilworth and that reveals her as the Lady of the Sonnets, suggests thoughts that lie almost too deep for tears—certainly too deep for words unless Dr. Furness kindly take notice and furnish them. On the whole, however, and taking one story with another, we may "admire piecemeal," as Meredith's heroine did on a certain occasion. In the matters of printing, binding, and colored frontispiece, the volume is one to be admired absolutely.

Abraham Lincoln and his Presidency. By Joseph H. Barrett, LL.D. 2 vols. Pp. 379-411. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co.

A new Life of Lincoln has no reason for being unless it presents new facts, or new views of old facts, or a superior style of writing. Mr. Barrett's latest Life of Lincoln (he had written a previous one thirty-nine years ago) does not meet any of these requirements. A few letters from public men of the war period are presented for the first time, but they are of slight interest. The judgments pronounced by the author on the men and events of the period are scanty and inconsequential, and his style is tedious and in places obscure. Two personal interviews with Lincoln are narrated near the end of the second volume. Each of these contains a fact which we have not seen elsewhere. The first of these interviews took place October 2, 1864, and Mr. Barrett wrote his notes of it at that time. The Presidential election was approaching, the candidacy of Frémont had been withdrawn, Republican prospects were bright, and Mr. Lincoln was in good humor. Referring to the opposition of the Frémont platform to "arbitrary arrests," Mr. Lincoln related with merriment an incident that had lately occurred. "Frémont had sent me a verbal message," he said, "that if I would shut up his refractory 'New Nation' man in Fort Lafayette, he would balance accounts." Mr. Barrett omits, however, to tell us who the "New Nation" man was. The second interview is dated November 4, 1864. The fact of interest in it relates to the contemplated appointment of

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Chase as Chief Justice. Mr. Lincoln had not yet made up his mind. There was a preponderance of opinion among Republicans, he said, in favor of Chase, but those opposed to him were too important to be wholly disregarded. "My old friend Dave Davis," he added, "on the Supreme Bench, would be displeased with Chase's appointment. He talked the matter over with me once last winter, and thought it not best to put a man on the bench who would still be aspiring to the Presidency." David Davis was a man of discernment, but if his criticism of Chase had been spoken in Chase's presence, the latter might have replied with much force, *Tu quoque.*

Mr. Barrett's literary defects are largely compensated by copious extracts from the writings of Lincoln himself, who assuredly ranks with the foremost masters of the mother tongue. Mr. Barrett quotes the London *Spectator* as saying: "No criticism of Mr. Lincoln can be in any sense adequate which does not deal with his astonishing power over words. It is not too much to say of him that he is among the greatest masters of prose ever produced by the English race." Abundant proof in support of this eulogium is supplied in these two volumes. The passages quoted are judiciously chosen, and, being arranged in conjunction with the events described, make a much stronger impression on the mind of the reader than the same passages when found in the 'Complete Writings.' We reproduce two of these by way of sample—the one for its almost startling force, the other for its bearing on present problems.

On the first of January, 1841, Mr. Lincoln, then in his thirty-second year, was under an engagement to meet Miss Mary Todd at a designated hour and place and be married to her. He failed to keep the appointment. He was married to her subsequently, but during the interval he went through such a season of remorse and self-reproach that his friend, Joshua Speed, feared he would commit suicide, and took precautions against it. In a letter to John T. Stuart, dated January 23, 1841, Lincoln said: "I am now the most miserable man living. *If what I feel were equally distributed to the whole human family, there would not be one cheerful face on the earth.*" Mr. Barrett thinks that Mr. Lincoln's failure to keep the engagement was unpardonable, unless "reasonably accounted for," but that, since Miss Todd afterwards renewed the engagement, "it must have been somehow explained to the person who had a right to know the reason." This is not quite so glaring a non-sequitur as that of Miss Tarbell, who argues that because she found several old ladies of the neighborhood, sixty years later, who did not remember the affair, therefore it never took place. The truth is that Lincoln felt such a sense of the wrong he had done to the lady, and such a resulting loss of self-respect and self-confidence on his own side, that he resolved to repair it by offering himself again, although, when asked by a little boy where he was going on the evening when he was actually married, Herndon says he replied, "To hell, I suppose."

The other quotation is from Lincoln's letter to Henry L. Pierce of Boston, dated April 6, 1859, in reply to an invitation to attend a festival in that city in commemoration of the birthday of Thomas Jefferson. This has been published often, but it seems to be quite as appropriate now as at the time of its first appearance:

"One would state with great confidence," says Lincoln, "that he could convince any sane child that the simpler propositions of Euclid are true; but, nevertheless, he would fail utterly with one who should deny the definitions and axioms. The principles of Jefferson are the definitions and axioms of free society. And yet they are denied and evaded with no small show of success. One dashingly calls them 'glittering generalities,' another calls them 'self-evident lies,' and others insidiously argue that they apply only to 'superior races.' . . . This is a world of compensations, and he who would *be* no slave must consent to *have* no slave. *Those who deny freedom to others deserve it not for themselves, and, under a just God, cannot long retain it.*"

How would those last words look in the Republican national platform this year, coupled with a refusal to give freedom to the "inferior races" on the other side of the Pacific, or to promise it to them at any future time?

At the end of so large a work as the one under review, fraught with the mightiest events in our history, the reader looks for a summing up of the character and achievements of the subject of the biography. Even this is wanting. In place of it we have a few brief appreciations by others, the most sententious of which is that of Sir Edward Malet, who held a subordinate place in the British Embassy at Washington in the war time, and who said of Lincoln, in a book published forty years later: "Of all the great men I have known, he is the one who has left on me the impression of a sterling man of God."

William Hickling Prescott. By Rollo Ogden. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904.

Mr. Ogden's aim has been no more ambitious than to supplement Ticknor's standard Life of Prescott; having rather in mind to bring out the historian's personality than to judge his performance and rank as a writer. The result is a small volume furnishing agreeable reading for a couple of sittings, or even one. Prescott's journals and record of correspondence have been gleaned; the Harvard College Library has been interrogated for his reading while an undergraduate, and his "family room" (Hollis 11) has been identified; his letters and "noctographs" have been examined, the "occasional minor lapses" in his written Spanish remarked, Ticknor's liberties with Prescott's text when copying his English letters—"amusingly toned down, and now and then boldly altered"—pointed out; and especially a whole chapter reveals Prescott's political sympathies in a light which Ticknor naturally chose not to throw on them as not having (latterly, at least) the stamp of current Whig "respectability."

From all this it is impossible not to be drawn towards Prescott's simple and charming character, in accordance with unvarying tradition concerning him. His success, in copyrights as in reputation among scholars, is as romantic as his lifelong bearing-up against the great affliction of precarious eyesight. And here one might like to see brought out even more clearly Prescott's amazing quality of conscientiousness, which, when he was rich, social, not fond of work, and exempted by a cruel affliction from all call to work, led him to toil like a galley-slave, from a sheer sense of duty. On the other side—or should we not say on the same side?—is his curious methodical production, which permitted him to forecast the day and almost the hour when his task would be achieved; which was even gauged by formal written wagers with his secretary, the odds against himself, that so much would be accomplished in such a time and at such a rate. This measured flow at first seems opposed to the dignity of severe historical composition, whatever precedent may be found for it in the output of certain prolific novelists; but it meant simply the conscious control of materials finally amassed, and, for the rest, an added incentive to be diligent. If there was some pride in triumphing by the calendar, there was no self-complacency amid the applause bestowed on the grist of his mill. His modesty remained unaffected, nor was he capable of jealousy, while he could be frank in friendly criticism, as may be seen in the letter to Motley at page 212.

Some may be disposed to enter a caveat as regards Prescott's relations to Robertson. There is a significant entry culled by Mr. Ogden, at page 154, from the diary for April 23, 1845: "But beware of Robertson. Never glance at him till after subject moulded in my mind and thrown into language." In his "Conquests" Prescott inclines plainly to censure his Scottish predecessor almost without reserve, though his own books are hardly more than an aggravated amplification of portions of the 'History of America.' He had, of course, much more material at his command, but used it to much less advantage than Robertson did his limited material. Again, the systematic critical review of the sources, for which we are to a certain extent indebted to Prescott, is copied from Robertson, as well as from the Abbé Clavigero, Robertson's contemporary. The latter, in turn, derives much of his method and arrangement from Boturini. In a few instances Prescott praises Robertson indirectly. As for his own appreciations, they are the inevitable outcome of his time, of his lack of personal acquaintance with the countries and people, and his physical condition, for all which he is, of course, above reproach.

In connection with the wagers between Prescott and his secretary, already touched upon, his present biographer likens this "oddity" to a similar "sottise" on the part of Mme. de Sévigné. But the letter from which he quotes should be compared with preceding letters on the same subject, viz., the reading of La Calprenède's novel, 'Cléopâtre.' From these it will appear that though she had sworn to finish ("gagé d'achever") this novel, it was twelve-volume romances and not any "gageures" of her own that she considered to be "sottises."

There is a very pleasing portrait of Prescott for frontispiece, and an index. Sibley, Harvard's future librarian, as is shown at page 90, prepared the index to 'Ferdinand and Isabella' for $100; Folsom (p. 141) over-corrected the proofs of the 'Conquest of Mexico' for $50 a volume.

Pioneering in Central Africa. By Samuel P. Verner. Richmond: Presbyterian Commit-

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tee of Publication. 1903. Illustrations and maps. Pp. xi., 500. 8vo.

The mission of which this book gives some account has the special interest that it was established in the Congo Free State to test the capability of the American negro for elevating his African brother, and it is manned chiefly by colored people from Mississippi, Virginia, and Alabama. It has borne the test successfully, judging from Mr. Verner's statement that "these Luebo people had become as civilized and more Christianized than the colored people of my own Columbia in five years' time." Of the individual work of the negro missionaries, men and women, by which in so short a time they had gathered in one town a church with 700 members, we regret to say we are told but little. The book is largely devoted to an account of the author's journey to and from his post, and his three years' residence as business manager of the mission and pioneer. The multiform character of a day's routine may be learned from his "labor programme for preaching, teaching, meditating, recording the results of linguistic study, overseeing the manual labor in garden, field, and building, inspecting and correcting the domestic and culinary departments, trading for native produce; keeping financial accounts of all transactions, receipts and expenditures; and receiving the constant stream of curious visitors (one of the most monotonous tasks after the novelty wears off)." His numerous pictures of the natives and their customs are interesting, but lack lifelikeness and variety, while he adds but little to our knowledge of racial characteristics.

His treatment of the delicate subject of the Congo Government is also disappointing. Naturally, in the interests of the mission, he would endeavor to refrain from writing so as to excite the ill-feeling of the Belgian officials, but he leans too far on the other side when he says that "the Congo is an instance of the policy of the open door," and that "the general effect of the Government has been progressive and beneficial." He acknowledges that "there are some flagrant abuses, but these are being corrected as rapidly as the conditions permit." It should be borne in mind that his mission was in the Kasai district, in which there have been, if we are not mistaken, few or none of the atrocities which have marked the Government's treatment of the natives in the northern and eastern districts. What this is can be gathered, however, from Mr. Verner's description of the manner in which the "Chef de Poste" collected the tribute of ivory and rubber in the mission town. His agents were a band of native soldiers, led by a native, and followed by a "vagabondish rabble of camp followers, thieves, rogues, rascals, runaway slaves, and idle riff-raff." At the first rumor of their coming the women and children hid in the depths of the forest—for "stealing women and children" was the aim of the camp followers—and the men prepared to fight. It was with the utmost difficulty that Mr. Verner prevented attempts to loot the town, which doubtless would have been successful but for the presence of the white missionary. This system of tax-collecting, however, does not seem to offend him as much as "the lack of any voice accorded the settlers, traders, missionaries and colonists in their government," for he writes at the close of his narrative: "One of the happiest events of my experience in Africa, and that which reflected most favorably upon the officials of the Government of the Congo Free State, was an act of the Government by which the white men at Luebo were given the right of local government, the administrative functions being vested in the ranking member of the American Mission."

The contributions to science are an account of some pygmy neighbors, a few specimens of the folk-lore stories "told to the enraptured little darkies gathered about the evening fires," and some facts in regard to the language, arts, industries, and superstitions of the people. There are also numerous hortatory passages, apparently taken from missionary addresses intended to awaken in American Christians a sense of their duty to their African brother.

We cannot forbear to note here that, in a letter to Lord Lansdowne describing his visit a year ago to the Upper Nile, Lord Cromer contrasts the condition of the districts under British rule with that of adjoining Congoland. In the former, "numerous villages are dotted along the banks of the river. The people, far from flying at the approach of white men, as was formerly the case, ran along the banks, making signs for the steamer to stop. . . . It was impossible to mistake their manifest signs and expressions of security and content." On the Belgian side of the river for eighty miles "not a sign of a village existed. Indeed, I do not think that any of our party saw a single human being in Belgian territory, except the Belgian officers and men, and the wives and children of the latter. . . . The reason of all this is obvious enough. The Belgians are disliked. The people fly from them, and it is no wonder they should do so, for I am informed that the soldiers are allowed full liberty to plunder, and that payments are rarely made for supplies. The British officers wander, practically alone, over most parts of the country, either on tours of inspection or on shooting expeditions. I understand that no Belgian officer can move outside the settlements without a strong guard."

The Chronicles of a Pioneer School from 1792 to 1833; Being the History of Miss Sarah Pierce and her Litchfield School. Compiled by Emily Noyes Vanderpoel. Printed by the University Press, Cambridge, Mass. 1903.

In the palmy days of its female academy, Litchfield was the fourth largest town in the State of Connecticut, a commercial and industrial centre. It now lies at the end of a small branch railroad, but about 1820, which is the *floruit* of the academy, all the post coaches on the main route from Boston to New York, or from Hartford to West Point, ran through Litchfield. Not far from Miss Pierce's school was the famous law school of Judge Reeve and Judge Gould, the first of its kind in the United States. A charming description of the town was written by Mrs. Stowe in 'Poganuc People.' In 1810 the Rev. Lyman Beecher had been called to the Congregational Church in Litchfield; the frequent entries in Miss Vanderpoel's record of the school testify to his interest in the enterprise. Henry Ward Beecher, his son, was born in Litchfield in 1813, and was prepared for college by Miss Pierce.

She was a pioneer of women's education. Not that the curriculum of the Female Academy, as it was always called, differed to any appreciable extent from that which, about the same time, at Miss Pinkerton's academy for young ladies on Chiswick Mall was fitting Miss Amelia Sedley to adorn her "polished and refined circle." Spelling and dancing, geography and deportment, with all kinds of embroidery and needlework, and the designing of elaborate colored historical charts were the leading studies at the academy. But Miss Pierce's theory of education was in advance of her practice and her times. Miss Pinkerton aimed at cultivating the manners of Amelia; Miss Pierce would have made a sincere attempt to discipline her mind by the practice of English composition and the study of that 'Universal History' which she wrote for the use of her pupils. Life at Miss Pierce's was a singular mixture of Arcadian simplicity and old-fashioned formality. There were no athletics for women in those days; when Miss Pinkerton's young ladies went boating, the students of the Law School took the oar; there was a daily walk, in which the start was made in a regular procession from the academy, to the music of the flute and flageolet, but the ranks quickly broke up, and the walk became a stroll in the society of the gentlemen of the law. The school record displays an innocent pride in the number of happy marriages that were the result of this association. The strangest phenomenon of all, from the point of view (say) of Miss Pinkerton, was the fact that the law students were not discouraged from playing "on their flutes under the window of each lady after they had retired"; Miss Pierce herself on one occasion was so enchanted with their performance that she composed some verses, quoted in the 'Chronicles,' complimenting the young men on their "heavenly music." She wrote plays which were acted by her scholars, with the assistance, of course, of the Law School; they are couched in excellent Johnsonese, and though the outward formalities were not maintained at Litchfield, we gather that the intercourse was conducted in language that Miss Pinkerton herself could not have surpassed. The diaries of the pupils reproduced in the 'Chronicles' are extremely amusing. One young lady, whose spelling and punctuation, like Miss Sedley's geography, "leaves something to be desired," writes in 1802:

"Arose at six devoted the morning to studying the boundarys on the map in the four noon worked a little time I went out to the barn with the girls to study my lesson came in and recited it took a lesson in music in the afternoon read worked on my picture studied my spellings and spelt after school the Boarders all moved the South Chamber and my time was spent in writing in graret and I was forgot and licked to lost my tea however I did not go up raret again without partisioning to some one to caul me meal times the evening was spent in reading till Nine and after that went down and went to Mr Chappins at get some beer."

Miss Sheldon, aged fifteen, records that "In the evening Mr Stanly was there, his manners are genteel and agreeable, but I am afraid that beneath a form so beautiful is concealed a vile heart."

The 465 pages of 'Chronicles' collected by Miss Vanderpoel and Miss Buel include

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every scrap of available information bearing on the history of the academy itself, its teachers, and the 3,000 pupils who attended during the forty years of its existence. There is a good deal of repetition, and much that seems to us to have only the remotest bearing on the subject, though it has an antiquarian interest that redeems the irrelevancy. For instance, there are some fifty-five pages devoted to the letters and private accounts of Miss Pierce's brothers, Col. John Pierce (in which we note, by the way, that he paid thirty shillings for twenty-one pounds of sugar, and twenty shillings for a pound of tea) and Dr. Timothy Pierce. The numerous reproductions of samplers, water colors, and historical charts are a really charming record of a leisurely kind of education that has an archaic and even a melancholy interest in these days of basketball and college preparatory courses. Miss Pierce's Academy left its mark on some three thousand homes. Many an Amelia Sedley must have been braced by that influence, many a Becky Sharp softened and reclaimed.

Turkish Life in Town and Country. By Lucy M. J. Garnett. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1904. Pp. viii., 336.

This is the latest issue in the series entitled "Our European Neighbors," edited by William Harbutt Dawson. Miss Garnett has spent many years in Turkey. She is modest and careful in her statements, does not exaggerate, does not profess to know what she does not know. She is also sympathetic with her subject, without being blinded to evil conditions by that sympathy. She recognizes the virtues and the vices of the various peoples and classes dealt with in this remarkably comprehensive little volume with astonishing impartiality. As a woman, she enjoyed opportunities of studying the home life of the Turk which a man does not enjoy. Her picture of the harem life of the Turkish women is much more favorable than that usually presented. Polygamy is the exception, not the rule; two wives, the second taken because of lack of children by the first, seems "to be the extreme limit nowadays, and only once during my long residence in different parts of the country had I the opportunity of visiting a harem containing more than one" (pp. 13, 14). Turkish women "already possess all the legal personal and proprietary rights necessary to give them a social position equal, if not superior, to that of European women generally" (p. 15). The objection to their emancipation from harem restraints is one of custom and prejudice rather than of religious law. One of the most serious difficulties in the way of that emancipation is, in Miss Garnett's opinion, the consequent abolition of domestic slavery. The conditions of that system of domestic slavery of females which seems to be an essential part of harem life, are, according to her representations, such that in many respects the lot of slave girls in Turkey is preferable to that of domestic servants in England.

Turkish official life she finds corrupt and inefficient to the core. Places are of necessity bought and sold. As salaries are insufficient, uncertain, and always in arrear, the officials must inevitably support themselves by extortion and corruption. Justice is administered in the courts in recognition of the best fee. Of the retrograde movement now going on in Turkey, one finds indications in various parts of this volume—the check put upon the introduction of Western products and Western thought, the increased distrust and dislike of the native Christian populations, the omnipresent espionage, the increasing interference with educational institutions and influences, including books, the press, and the stage, the growing burden of ill-adjusted taxation, falling with especial weight on the agricultural classes.

Peculiarly timely is the chapter on "The Macedonian Nationalities." A residence in Salonica and the neighborhood brought Miss Garnett in contact with representatives of these various nationalities; and, apparently, journeys into the interior enabled her to extend that knowledge. The information obtained through personal observation has been judiciously supplemented by inquiry and study, and one gains from this chapter an admirable conception of the characteristics of the various populations of Macedonia. Those parts of Turkey with which Miss Garnett seems to be especially familiar are Salonica, Constantinople, Smyrna, and the immediately adjacent regions. The Arabic-speaking portions of the Turkish Empire are not treated in this volume at all.

The book is pleasantly and simply written; the illustrations, if not new, are well chosen for their purpose, the volume is handy and pleasant to the eye. Unfortunately, Miss Garnett follows the French method of transliterating Oriental names, which, while presenting the sounds satisfactorily to French-speaking people, is cumbersome and occasionally misleading in English.

Samuel Pepys, Lover of Musique. By Sir Frederick Bridge. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903. Pp. x., 126.

No published diary has exactly the same stamp of candor as the diary of Samuel Pepys. Those who have written similar books, whether, as most of them do, they bury their worst sins and indiscretions under a discreet silence, or ostentatiously display them, like Rousseau and Restif de la Bretonne, all wrote for publication, or at least for a possible publication. Pepys has put such things into his diary as no man of his character can be conceived to have been likely to record if he had not felt sure that his privacy would be abundantly safe under the intricate cryptograph which he used. We have sometimes felt a certain sense of shame in reading these revelations, as if we were listening behind a door, or opening somebody's private letters. It is too evident that not a few readers of the Diary take a special interest in those confessions which Pepys must have written down in shame and confusion of face, while they peruse with indifference the record of his honest struggles for advancement in the public service, and the undesigned evidences of his good heart and kindly nature.

It is with unusual pleasure, therefore, that we take up this little book of Sir Frederick Bridge's, which deals with one of Pepys's most charming traits, his enthusiastic devotion to "Musique." Sir Frederick has written it *con amore*, as he does everything relating to that gentle art; and all those who like music will find it full of information and interest. Sir Frederick first shows from the Diary itself that Pepys deserves the name of musical enthusiast and was no mean critic of the art of his day. He then gives us two chapters on Pepys's musical contemporaries, Matthew Locke, the elder Purcell, and Henry Lawes, to whom Milton addressed one of his sonnets. Lawes was the author of a clever hoax at the expense of certain fops who affected to prefer songs with Italian words. He set to music the bare catalogue titles of a number of Italian songs with explanatory descriptions, and scored a decided success with these shallow critics. The words, translated, make such nonsense as this:

> "In that frozen heart for one
> Voice my Lady weeps
> If your eyes for two
> Voices, etc."

Other contemporaries named are Pelham Humphrey, Gibbons, Banister, and Monsieur Grabu, Master of the King's Music, panegyrized by Dryden, who wrote the libretto for his opera "Albion and Albanius."

We are next introduced to Pepys as a vocalist and as the music teacher of his wife and of several household servants, whose voices and musical taste were, in his eyes, quite as good recommendations as any more practical qualifications. In connection with Pepys's study of sundry instruments and criticisms on others, the author gives an instructive account of several which are now things of the past, the Lyra Viol, the Arched Viol, the Bandore, the Recorder, the Trumpet-Marine, and the Virginal, together with facsimiles of scores and tablatures for the "flagelet." The last chapter shows our diarist as a composer, and gives an account of his hard work on his two pieces, the basso song, "Beauty, retire," and the recitative, "It is decreed," the first of which is reproduced with the accompaniment. It is curious that this part of his musical activity brought him into serious trouble. In order to have near him an adviser in musical composition, Pepys had taken into his house and service a certain Morelli born in Flanders and bred at Rome. In 1679 this Morelli was accused of being a disguised Jesuit and plotting to dethrone the King. Pepys had enemies, who, on the ground of his connection with Morelli, secured his committal to the Tower in May of that year. He was eventually released on bail, but was careful not further to harbor the suspect.

This book is printed on excellent paper, with wide margins and good type. It has a sufficient index, and is adorned with a fine portrait of Pepys from the plate belonging to the Corporation of Trinity House.

The à Becketts of "Punch." Memories of Father and Sons. By Arthur William à Beckett. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

"Three working journalists," the author calls his father and his father's two sons. From 1841 till 1902 their association with *Punch* was very close, and the present volume is a record of that association. The elder à Beckett—"à Beckett the Beak"—was the friend of Dickens and Thackeray, and the author of those immortal works the 'Comic Blackstone' and the 'Comic Histories' of England and Rome. It is

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amusing to know that Arthur à Beckett, who revised the 'Comic Blackstone' after his father's death, had, by the advice of his coach, made use of that treatise in preparing for the bar. The sons' repute is eclipsed in that of the father, and one of the pleasant features of this volume is the fact that there is no trace of any desire to alter the true perspective. The author and his brother may be said to have continued the tradition of their father, but their humor was of a less marked variety.

The reminiscences here preserved are not as a rule of any general interest; the public at large has forgotten about the *Glowworm* and the *Tomahawk;* and even *Punch*, as it has grown older, has come to lack the importance it once had, when those who met once a week to talk over its cartoon were among the most original men in England. But there is a good deal that is entertaining, and we may put down as both entertaining and instructive the author's account of his adventures in court as editor of the *Glowworm*. A libel suit was brought by an actor, who asked for damages because it had been said of him that in Palgrave Simpson's "Watch-Cry" his part had been "efficiently spoken by the prompter." The case is a good illustration of the dangers of the law of libel in England, for not only did the actor recover damages in this suit, but managed to get damages twice. The editor, after the verdict, republished articles by other editors applauding the manly stand taken by him in defending the suit, as a result of which he was sued over again. What follows is curious. He discovered that there was a "speculative solicitor" who "saw his way to making an income out of every paper with which I was connected." This solicitor was at once secured by a general retainer to advise the editor, before publication, as to whether any contemplated publication was or was not libellous. He was never called on for an opinion; and there were no more libel suits.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amsbary, Wallace Bruce. The Ballads of Bourbonnais. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co.
Ballard, Addison. From Talk to Text. Longmans, Green & Co. $1 net.
Carvalho, David N. Forty Centuries of Ink. The Banks Law Pub. Co.
Davidis, Henriette. Practical Cook Book. Translated from the German. Second American edition. Milwaukee, Wis.: C. N. Caspar Co. $1.25.
Elson, Henry William. History of the United States of America. The Macmillan Co. $1.75 net.
Haydn's Dictionary of Dates. Revised to end of 1903. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6 net.
Kingsley, Florence M. Kindly Light. (Fiction.) Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co. 50 cents.
Lorimer, George C. The Modern Crisis in Religion. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1 net.
McMurray, Charles A. Pioneers on Land and Sea; Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley; and Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains and the West. (Pioneer History Stories.) The Macmillan Co.
Pickard, Samuel T. Whittier-Land. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 net.
Smith, J. Ritchie. The Teaching of the Gospel of John. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50 net.
The Statesman's Year-Book, 1904. London and New York: The Macmillan Co.

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